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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXX, NUMBER 5

MAY, 1939

The War Contents of American History Textbooks

CARL E. COLE

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Since the World War the American public has been deeply interested in the content of textbooks, particularly those in history and the other social studies. Examples of this interest may be found in the activities of such organizations as the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the National Council for the Prevention of War, the Association for Peace Education, the Daughters of the American Revolution, the Sons of the American Revolution, the Daughters of the Confederacy, the American Legion, and the American Association of University Women. There are numerous other societies, but these will serve as typical examples of the organized interest in the social science materials which are used in the schools.

The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace has prepared a bibliography of selected books, pamphlets and periodical articles, dealing with history teaching and school textbooks in relation to peace, war, and international understanding. The National Council for the Prevention of War has also prepared bibliographies for the schools in educating for peace. In addition, this organization has made a special study of war and peace content in American history textbooks. The Association for Peace Education, through a special committee, has made an analysis of the emphasis upon war in our elementary school histories. The Daughters of the American Revolution, the Sons of the American Revolution, and the Daughters of the Confederacy have created standing committees in their respective organizations

to examine the content of history textbooks used in our schools. The American Legion has directed the writing of an American history text to be used in our public schools. The American Association of University Women, through a committee, has published a report on the content of American history textbooks used in the United States.

The writer has taught history and the other social studies in Minnesota high schools for a number of years and has had an excellent opportunity to observe at first hand the effects of textbooks on the attitudes of pupils. The public school contacts children at a time when strong impressions are made on their memory. Altruism, glorification of national life, hero-worship, and other emotions are easily excited by teachers and books. Valorous deeds and the sayings of famous men stir pupils to a high pitch of enthusiasm. Authors of textbooks in history and the other social studies keenly aware of this, have condemned and exalted, as the spirit of the times demanded.

History has been employed in the name of patriotism by many countries. Livy, Green, and Bancroft eulogized Rome, England, and America respectively; Treitschke and Nietzsche glorified the imperialistic regime of Germany. Present day German historians are compelled by edict to glorify the German race and the Nazi regime. These glorifications have been at least partly responsible for the overweening pride in national and race attributes, and to some extent for the enmity between nations,

such as that between France and Germany. The accusation has been made that Americans are taught to hate the British through the study of American history.

Propagandist history has also been used for other purposes. The pacifist has emphasized the gruesomeness and horrors of war; the militarist has pointed out the advantages of preparedness; the race-conscious have glorified their heroes; the religious enthusiasts have acknowledged only contributions by their own sect; social organizations have sought to serve their own purposes.

The world is seeking to abolish war and is trying to develop effective machinery for the maintenance of peace. What history textbooks used in American schools teach about war becomes a matter of national and even international concern. War activities were emphasized in textbooks published some decades ago. Not only were they stressed by space allotments, but by describing the actual events on the field of battle in such manner as to stimulate strong emotions and prejudices.

The facts of history which should be taught in our schools are those which are useful. If our textbooks were less patriotic and more correct, the youth of today would be more apt to learn the true meaning of war; he would have a better idea of the nature, the cost and possible consequences of war.

In the past, far more attention was given to the mechanics than to the psychology of peace. Much has been said about peace leagues, reduction of armaments, government ownership of munition plants and international tribunals, but very little has been done toward educating the youth of our country along these lines.

It is not through politics, but through the schools, that we are able to bring about mutual understanding among peoples. It is especially in the teaching of history that international peace and justice can be promoted. Of what benefit are all the peace conferences and friendly agreements if the human intellect is not bent upon peace? The proper appeal to the younger generation in the classroom will do much to develop the proper attitude toward peace problems.

The writer analyzed thirty widely used textbooks in American history to determine the extent and nature of the war contents of these texts with a view to estimating the probable effects upon the pupils. A supplementary problem was a determination of the trend in the treatment of war in the textbooks. While no statistics of the extent to which a specific text is used are available, it was assumed that the productions of popular publishers all attained a reasonably wide use. Particular attention was given to the copyright date. Five texts with copyrights before 1900 were included, the oldest being 1872. The most recent texts analyzed were

copyrighted in the 1930's.

In determining the extent of the war material the following were computed: (1) the percentage of the texts devoted to military affairs; (2) the percentage of questions, topics, and references devoted to war; and (3) the percentage of illustrations of a war-like nature. The second step was an attempt at a qualitative evaluation of the probable effects of the war materials. While this procedure was somewhat subjective in nature it was handled as objectively as possible.

Four levels of possible presentation were used as criteria in evaluating the impressions made by the materials in the textbooks upon the minds of the pupils: (1) Is the treatment so strongly emotional that it would create a desire in the pupils to participate in the experiences depicted? (2) Are the illustrations on war made so attractive to the pupil that he will be led to think of war as a worthy undertaking? (3) Is there a straight-forward presentation of the bare results relating to war which would produce little effect upon the pupils? (4) Does the author depict the horrors, the suffering, the destruction, the carnage, the bestiality of war?

Selections were also taken from the textbooks, which seemed to make war attractive to the pupils by favorable comments about war leaders and stirring descriptions of their activities.

The final attempt at a qualitative analysis of the war content was the selection of striking words, phrases, and clauses describing war activities. Such terms as these are frequent—"magnificent drive," "the flower of the Confederate army," the "conqueror of Vicksburg," "bravery," "valor," "stirring events" and "magnanimous conduct."

After the completion of the study, the findings and conclusions were as follows: (1) The percentage of war content varied from 43.5% to 8.8%; (2) Only two texts made any positive attempt to depict the horrors of war; (3) Twelve texts made war attractive by their illustrations; (4) Thirteen of the textbooks gave a straight-forward presentation of the events; (5) Eighteen out of thirty textbooks made war attractive by favorable comments about war leaders; (6) Striking words, phrases, and clauses describing war activities were found in twenty-four of the thirty textbooks; (7) The average percentage of total war content found in thirty textbooks was found to be 19.9%; (8) The total war content, including war illustrations, questions, pages, words and reading references, in textbooks published before 1918 was found to be 27.33%; (9) The total war content of textbooks published after 1918 was found to be 15.6%.

This marked decrease in the war content of American history textbooks published since the World War might be accounted for, (1) by increased emphasis upon social and industrial history

in this period; (2) by the revulsion toward war with its more modern and more horrible methods of destruction and by the still vivid presence of the horrors of the last war in the memories of millions of ex-soldiers; (3) by the realization which has come to many, including writers of textbooks, of the futility of war in settling the great issues between modern nations; and (4) by the activities of peace organizations in the period following the World War, which have had some effect in shaping the content of present day textbooks.

Recent textbooks which are low in war content,

as indicated by space allotments, show a tendency to avoid the glorification of war activities. Upon close examination of the two textbooks lowest in war content, one is convinced that the authors made a studied effort to avoid glorifying war activities. In recent texts which have shown a tendency to glorify war, one will not find this glorification in World War activities, but in their treatment of the war activities of the Revolution, the War of 1812 and the Civil War. This seems to indicate that authors who are prone to glorify war, could find nothing to glorify in a war as recent as the World War.

A Criterion for Good Teaching in History

WILLIAM H. BARNARD

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What constitutes good teaching in history? This is a very fundamental question: one that should be squarely faced by every teacher of history, and by every teacher who has any responsibility for the education of history teachers. However easy the question may at first appear to be, the more carefully it is studied and analyzed the more difficulties, it seems, we encounter in giving a satisfactory answer. Why should such be true? Probably because those responsible for rendering judgments as to what constitutes good teaching in history use different aspects of teaching activities as criteria. Since this is true and because all do not use a common "yardstick" they must, of necessity, come to different decisions.

One person may take as his guide the broad objectives of education and of history, whereas another may totally disregard these broad objectives and focus attention on some immediate objective, which is often far removed from the ultimate objectives. Another may be primarily concerned in how pupils behave—particularly if he is a strong disciplinarian, whereas others may be concerned primarily with pupil responses to specific fact questions. Many may emphasize the personality of the teacher; others may be concerned exclusively with the methods used. A college teacher recently said: "The analysts of good teaching, if they go deep enough, find character, preparation, interest, and adaptability among the basic factors."¹ The following quotation is somewhat typical in regard to the "knowledge-method" controversy:

The statement is often erroneously made that if one knows his subject he can teach it.

¹ Leslie H. Meeks, "Am I a Good Teacher?" *The Teachers College Journal* (Terre Haute, Ind.), IX (May, 1938), 132.

Nothing is farther from the truth. . . . One must know how to teach as well as what he is teaching. He must take courses in the theory and principles of teaching, in tests and measurements, in the methodology of his particular subject or grade, in educational psychology, in child growth and development, in curriculum making and so on. Teaching is a profession; it is futile to hope to succeed in it without adequate training of a professional sort.²

These concepts are well and good—they present views that, on the whole, we agree with more or less. However, it seems to the writer that we shall continue to encounter difficulties in answering the question as long as we continue to do so in general terms. Can we not well conceive of many criteria for good teaching, and cannot we think of some criterion that is not ephemeral? Indeed such has been in the thinking of many in the past. Fletcher expresses it as follows:

As yet we have no pedagogically practicable means of measuring the non-factual products of instruction. One fundamental principle, however, may be considered as a starting point in devising such a standard; namely, that such effects express themselves best in the tendency of the individual to carry on after formal instruction has ceased.³

Whereas, Walker suggests:

The experimenter seems to be on safer grounds when he uses some form of pupil

² C. C. Crawford, *How to Teach* (Los Angeles: Southern California School Book Depository, 1938), p. 15.

³ John Madison Fletcher, *Psychology in Education* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1934), p. 239.

change as the main criterion for teaching success.⁴

These points of view which emphasize some form of student change appeal very strongly to the writer, but can such changes be secured which have reasonable validity? This question may be answered in the affirmative. It occurred to the writer that if history is taught as it should be, those who have had more units of it in high school should, other things being equal, tend to elect history in college to a greater extent than those who have had fewer units. Consequently, during the summer of 1937, he secured the high school records of 286 students who had graduated with the A.B. degree from one of the Mid-Western state universities in June of that year. The students were divided into two groups, namely, those who took history as a college major and those who did not. We shall designate the former as Group I and the latter as Group II. Group I was composed of 44 students and Group II of 242. These groups were compared as to the average number of high school units each had in history and they were found to be 3.56 and 3.05 respectively.

The writer thought it would be worth while to get reactions from Group I as to the contributing causes for their choosing history as a major in college. Therefore, the following letter was sent to each member of the group:

It is my desire to secure information from those graduating from "X" University last June. I note from information obtained from the records in the registrar's office, that you took a college major in history. It is my desire to secure the specific cause or causes entering into your choice of this subject as a college major. It seems to me that the causes might be classified, for my purpose, somewhat as follows:

1. Good teaching of the social studies in high school.
2. No specific interest developed in high school, but an interest developed as a result of good teaching in college.
3. Had to choose a major in some field and thought it might as well be history as any other subject.
4. Other causes.

Will you kindly check the one of the four contributing causes mentioned which seemed to be the dominant factor in your choice of the above mentioned field. . . .

Self-addressed stamped envelopes were sent and

there were 44 replies—distributed as follows according to the above numbers: seven checked number 1; sixteen, number 2; four, number 3; and seventeen, number 4.

It is readily admitted that these graduates may not have had an accurate yard-stick as to what constituted good teaching of history either in high school or in college, but one thing is certain: slightly less than sixteen per cent of the history majors secured any direct interest in the subject as a result of high school study and teaching. The situation is more encouraging in college, where thirty-six per cent developed an interest as a result of what they called good teaching. By their fruits ye shall know them. Can we not have more of our "school-trees" bearing "interest-fruits?" That is, interest in the subject and in the subject-field?

This factor of interest was never as important as today. Our whole population is more and more coming to be enrolled in our high schools—our opportunity is great; our responsibility likewise is great. Can we not do a better job, in the future, in developing proper attitudes toward our school subjects, or subject fields, than has been done in the past? Should not the development of interests and the proper attitudes be one of our fundamental objectives and should it not be one of the criteria of good teaching in history?

Education is worth just the difference it makes in the activities of the individuals who have been educated. The question is not how many books did we compel the child to read, how much does he know of arithmetic, geography, history, art, and the like, but rather what use does he make of this knowledge; how is he different from the person who does not possess this information; . . . The teacher must use his subject to develop his students, not his students to build up his subject and his department. This principle should determine course offerings.⁵

The concept I have in mind is well illustrated in the following quotation of Max McConn, Lehigh University. He states:

The subjects which we retain in our elementary, secondary, and collegiate curricula—reading, writing, and arithmetic, geography, history, languages, economics, science, and philosophy—hold their fixed places, not because the pupils or students are interested in them, . . . but because of their supposed value in preparation for adult life. . . . From the standpoint of the doctrine of interest, and the

⁴ W. H. Lancelot and others, *The Measurement of Teaching Efficiency* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936), Preface, p. xi.

⁵ George D. Strayer, *A Brief Course in the Teaching Process* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1911), p. 1.

wide promulgation which that doctrine has received within the last thirty or forty years, it would seem absurd and criminal that this should still be the case. . . . This dilemma was amusingly illustrated at the conference on the liberal arts college which was held last January at Rollins College. At the first session of that conference, the fifteen educators present were invited, at the insistence of Professor James Harvey Robinson, to get up and give, one by one, a sort of "true story" or "confession" of their educational histories. One by one—including such notables as Professor Robinson himself, John Dewey, Henry Turner Bailey, Wilder D. Bancroft, A. Caswell Ellis, John Palmer Gavit, Joseph K. Hart, and Hamilton Holt—they stood up and confessed and the burden of every testimony was to the effect that the bulk of what each had studied in school and college and graduate school had been substantially of no profit to him, dry husks of memorizing, but that each had un-

covered somewhere, almost by accident, a vital interest in one field or another, and in that field had found his real development and education. It was an almost startling unanimity in support of the validity of the doctrine of interest in the higher reaches of instruction.⁶

What constitutes good teaching in history? The writer would like to emphasize further the criterion of the development of interest as one very important and essential yard-stick—the point of view of pupil change; the change of attitude into interest.

Thus one criterion for good teaching of history is the criterion of interest. What is the attitude of those pupils who study history—do they enjoy it, do they want to take more of it, and do they read it during their free or leisure time? To the degree that they do, then has there been good teaching in history.

⁶ Max McConn, "The Problem of Interest at the College Level," *Progressive Education*, VIII (December, 1931), 680. Published with permission.

Origins of National Nominating Committees and Platforms

THAIS M. PLAISTED

Los Angeles, California

The keystone of modern American party machinery has been the nominating convention with its attendant function of setting forth the political party platform. This type of convention does not seem to be inherited from our English governmental tradition, nor does it appear to be indigenous to our own constitutional institutions. It seems rather to have arisen from accidental necessity and to have been created at first in a most crude form. Due to the lack of means of rapid transportation, it was not firmly established as one of our national political organs until 1836.¹ Since then, however, it has been consistently employed by all political parties as the method of nomination for presidential candidates, and the promulgating of party platforms.

The convention system is said to have originated in Pennsylvania in 1808. For several years there existed a war between two factions of the Republican party. One of these, with the help of the Federalists,

was able to keep Governor Thomas McKean in office from 1799 to 1808. At that time, his term was about to expire. One set of partisans resorted to the usual device of the legislative caucus.² By this means, they were able, because of their political strength, to have representation from each county. This was not so with the opposing group who, also having called a caucus, found they did not have representation from every county. They, therefore, allowed the deficiency of members to be made up by inviting anyone who supported them in every county, which would not otherwise have been represented, to send delegates to the convention.

This idea of holding state conventions was improved upon until it was considered the usual way of concentrating party action. It awaited but the chance to be given it to be applied to national politics. In 1824 the Democrats of Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, advocated such a system as "the best and most unexceptionable method," but they also

¹ Edward Stanwood, *A History of the Presidency 1788-1898*, I (Boston: Houghton Company, 1916), 166-169; Samuel E. Morison, "The First National Nomination Convention 1808," *American Historical Review*, XVII (July, 1911), 744.

² Chester Lloyd Jones, *Readings in Parties and Elections in the United States* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1912), p. 41.

conceded that it was "impracticable from the immense extent of our country, and for the great expense necessarily incident to an attendance from the extreme parts of the United States." This was certainly true, for at that time, there was not one mile of railroad in the country, and it took weeks of travel to go from Louisiana and Missouri to Washington, D.C. Therefore, the objection of the Lancaster county Democrats was sustained, and it seemed it was right that they should contend that "the old and tried mode," the caucus, was the best that could be obtained.³

Even prior to this, however, the North Atlantic seaboard states had been instigators of the prototype of political party conventions. Both in 1808 and 1812 problems peculiar to the Federal party had brought about the sudden appearances of these embryonic institutions for nominating purposes. In 1808 it was the policy of the embargo, while in 1812 it was the war with England.⁴

The question before the Federalist party in 1808 was whether they could procure a candidate who could win votes from the sections and classes disturbed by their policy. Some method had to be used to secure a decision about whether to run their own nominees or to back insurgents in the field. By the latter means there seemed more chance of obtaining their end. De Witt Clinton of New York, who supported many planks in the Federal platform, was just the candidate. But it was necessary to find a way to bind the whole party to him and the Congressional Caucus held too many objections for that.⁵ It not only did not make for party harmony but there were also too few Federalists in Washington, D.C. to make it possible. The political party convention was only the alternative.

Such a convention was called in New York City in the third week in August. Both Federal and Democratic papers noted its existence, but could obtain no reason for its convening. Where its sessions were held is not definitely known today. The eight states of New Hampshire, New York, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and South Carolina sent delegates. Three states were not represented. Rhode Island did not send a delegate because it felt that no one could be spared from the state campaign that was being carried on there. Delaware had no representation because Mr. James Asheton Bayard opposed the meeting, while the absence of New Jersey was unexplained.

The number and personnel of the membership is

³ Edward Stanwood, *History of the Presidency*, I, 130.

⁴ Samuel E. Morison, "The First National Nomination Convention 1808," *American Historical Review*, XVII (July, 1911), 744.

⁵ Chester Lloyd Jones, *Readings in Parties and Elections in the United States*, pp. 8, 32.

a mere conjecture. It is certain that Massachusetts sent three men of the central committee, Harrison Gray Otis, Christopher Gore and James Lloyd. Among the Pennsylvania delegation were Thomas Fitzsimmons and Charles Willing Hare. John Dunham was there from Vermont and John Rutledge from South Carolina. The latter always spent his summers in Newport and probably attended because he could get there easily. The expense and time of the trip to New York probably prevented many from attending the convention. It is estimated that only twenty-five or thirty went.

The meeting carried out the purpose for which it was summoned. It made definite nominations for the national executive officers. It chose Charles Cotesworth Pinckney for President and Rufus King for Vice-President, and it was done "without the least hesitation" of their choice. Nevertheless it did not announce the names of the candidates until two or three weeks prior to the choice of electors.

It was a secret convention. It met with the intention of keeping its findings from the mass of the voters. It was an assemblage of those who thought themselves entitled to command because of education and fortune. It asked no cooperation of the people. Its value historically was that it served as a model for the convention of 1812.⁶

Although he was nominated without opposition by the Congressional caucus in Washington, D.C., James Madison was particularly unpopular with a portion of the Republican party in New York in 1812. Therefore the members of that party in the New York legislature decided, if possible, to prevent his election. Hence they nominated De Witt Clinton. Then, under the cover of pretending that the attendance of caucus nominations in the District of Columbia was a dangerous practice, the New York committee of correspondence, who were appointed to further the Clinton interests, urged the cooperation of other states to support the candidate chosen by this rather unusual method of nomination for national office.

This idea for a national nominating convention is said to have originated with William Sullivan, Calvin Goddard and John Dwight at Saratoga Springs. Whatever the case, it met in New York City in September, 1812. Seventy delegates from eleven states attended. Vermont, New Hampshire and Delaware each sent two representatives; Rhode Island and Maryland, three; South Carolina, four; Connecticut, six; Massachusetts, eight; New Jersey and Pennsylvania, twelve; and New York, eighteen. It may be seen that some of the smaller states had more representatives than the larger ones. Evidently there

⁶ Samuel E. Morison, "The First National Nomination Convention 1808," *American Historical Review*, XVII (July, 1911), 742.

were no rules established as to how many delegates were to come from each state.

For two days the assembly could not come to any decision. On the third day, they nominated De Witt Clinton for the Presidency—a choice that was supported for the most part in the election held later that year. All the New England states, except Vermont, voted for him, as did New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Tennessee, and Louisiana. He had a total of eighty-nine votes in the electoral college which was only eighteen less than those obtained by James Madison. Due to the fact that this Presidential campaign developed into a fight between war and peace factions and since Clinton had identified himself with the latter, he was soon banished from the national party.

The results of this convention were of little immediate consequence because its sessions were held privately and there were no reports printed. It did leave to posterity, however, the germinating idea of a national nominating convention. This the Democratic politicians of 1831 and 1832, with their improved means of transportation and larger campaign funds, nurtured into a more effective instrument for nominating Presidential candidates.⁷

Preceding the Presidential election of 1832 there were four separate nominating conventions held. In 1831 there were the Anti-Masonic and National Republican political assemblages; in 1832 the Young Men's National Republican Convention and the Democratic or Republican gathering. All were held in Baltimore with the exception of the Young Men's National Republican Convention. The result was that two new features were added to the nomination of Presidential and Vice-Presidential candidates by convention. They were the national nominating committee and the national party platform.

The Anti-Masonic party was the first one to meet in convention prior to the election of 1832. The party had arisen from the excitement caused by the alleged abduction in 1826 by the Masons of William Morgan who was purported to have revealed the secrets of Freemasonry. From this beginning, the party spread from its birthplace in western New York over most of the northern states and played a large part in state elections.⁸

On March 26, 1828 an assembly of this organization, representing twelve counties, had met in New York. Among the members were such men as

Samuel Works, Henry Ely, Frederick F. Backus, Frederick Whittlesey and Thurlow Weed, figures quite important throughout the history of the Anti-Masonic Party. The convention, whose membership they comprised, not only urged the suppression of Masonry through the ballot box, but also recommended the calling of a state convention at Utica in August.

This was really the starting point of the Anti-Masonic party in New York state politics. By the means of the convention system it was able to carry on a most effective system of propaganda. A convention which convened on February 19, 1829, to consider many problems pertinent to Anti-Masonry, resolved on the following day to hold a national convention at Philadelphia on September 11, 1830.⁹

Ninety-six delegates represented in this convention the ten states of New York, Ohio, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, the four New England states and the territory of Michigan. The important result was to vote to hold a second national convention in Baltimore on September 26, 1831. This convention was to be comprised of delegates equal in number to the representation in both Houses of Congress from each state. Its members were to be chosen by the people opposed to secret societies, and its purpose was to make nominations for the office of President and Vice-President.¹⁰

At the appointed time, the convention convened in the salon of the Athenaeum in Baltimore. It was called to order by Judge James Burt of New York, and chose as its president, Mr. John C. Spencer, of that same state. There were one hundred and twelve delegates present. There were thirteen from Massachusetts, thirty-one from New York, nineteen from Pennsylvania, five each from Ohio and Vermont, four from New Jersey, two from Maine and one each from New Hampshire and Maryland. In the list of official delegates, John Taylor was named representing Indiana. However, there is no record of his attendance. Otherwise there would have been one hundred and thirteen representatives at this convention.¹¹

After appointing four vice-presidents and as many secretaries, the president of the convention appointed members to the committees on Masonic penalties, judicial proceedings in the case of Morgan, the address to the people, publishing proceed-

⁷ John S. Murdock, "The First National Nominating Convention," *American Historical Review*, I (October, 1895), 680-683; Samuel E. Morison, "The First National Nominating Convention 1808," *American Historical Review*, XVII (July, 1911), 762-763.

⁸ Edward Stanwood, *History of the Presidency*, I, 155; "William Wirt to the National Convention," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLI (September, 1831), 85; "Statement in the New York Commercial Advertiser," *Ibid.*, XXXVII (September, 1829), 276.

⁹ Charles McCarthy, *The Anti-Masonic Party: A Study of Political Anti-Masonry in the United States, 1827-1840*, pp. 375-389. Erik McKinley Eriksson, "Political Anti-Masonry 1827-1843," *The Builder*, XII (1843), 353-359, 378-379.

¹⁰ Edward Giddens, *Anti-Masonic Almanac for the Year of the Christian Era, 1830*, p. 33; Edward Stanwood, *History of the Presidency*, I, 155.

¹¹ "The National Anti-Masonic Convention," from the *Patriot*, Baltimore, September 26, 1831, *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLI (September, 1831), p. 108.

ings and finance. He also chose a committee of one from each state to report upon the business of the convention. The convention also sent committees to wait upon Chief Justice John Marshall and Charles Carroll of Carrollton, the last survivor of the Declaration of Independence to take seats in this assemblage. The latter sent word that he was unable to accept their invitation due to old age; the former, after first declining because of business which would take him away from the city, finally attended the meetings as an honor guest.

It was not until the third day that the nomination of the Presidential and Vice-Presidential candidates came upon the calendar. For this, all the members had assembled.¹² They had been drawn from the constituents of both the Republican and National Republican parties. Their prime motive was to rid the country of the political evil of Freemasonry.

They were not able to choose Andrew Jackson or Henry Clay for their Presidential candidate, for these men were both avowed Masons.¹³ Therefore, they sought some other candidate who would have the requisite qualifications and could unite the party. Judge Arthur McLean of Ohio was opposed by certain influential "National Republicans" and therefore had to withdraw his name.

Finally when the convention did ballot, it chose William Wirt of Maryland. He had received 108 votes to the one given to Richard Rush of Pennsylvania. Because he had received more than the necessary three-fourths ballots necessary for the choice of a candidate, it was announced that he was duly nominated unanimously. In the same way Amos Ellmaker of Pennsylvania was made the Vice-Presidential nominee over John C. Spencer of New York.¹⁴

Committees were sent to inform both nominees. Ellmaker wrote a brief concise acceptance, but that from Wirt was a long and extraordinary letter. It had the appearance that it might have been prepared in advance.

In it the newly chosen Presidential nominee of the Anti-Masonic party admitted that he had been made a Mason when a young man. He confessed that he had never seen any harm in the order until the formation of the Anti-Masonic party. He declared that Masonry as they understood it "was not and could not be Masonry as conceived by Washington." He then concluded that if they had nominated him under a misapprehension that he would

allow them to substitute the name of another for his own. The delegates after hearing this address read, voted unanimously to stand by the nomination.¹⁵

This convention issued an address to the American people whereby the principles of Anti-Masonry were set forth. It stated that the use of suffrage should be employed against Freemasonry. It set forth the qualities for a President as those of industry, intelligence, honesty, vigilance, wisdom, justice, prudence and disinterested patriotism. It said that the use of government was to secure rights. It defined the essentials necessary to a republican government as those of civil over military authority, the encouragement of agriculture and productive industry, free elementary education, prevention of crime, and the circumvention of justice, and the protection of the civil rights of the people.¹⁶

This address, which seemed to have many characteristics in common with what were later termed political platforms¹⁷ in American political party history, was unanimously adopted. It is said that it took over an hour to read it and that it was not only attended most profoundly by the members, but several of them made very complimentary speeches in its behalf. On the motion of George Turner of Rhode Island, it was resolved that the president of the convention be requested to present a copy of the printed proceedings of this and the Anti-Masonic convention which had been held previously at Philadelphia to all the nation and state affairs.¹⁸ Then the assemblage adjourned, but not before Mr. Phelps of Massachusetts had proposed that another convention be held in Washington, D.C. in September, 1835.¹⁹ Thus ended the first open nominating convention in American history.²⁰

The National Republicans were the next national party to hold their convention in Baltimore. They met on Monday, December 12, 1831. Inclement weather prevented the prompt arrival of delegates, so that only one hundred and thirty were present the first day at the Athenaeum, but during the following four days the quota was raised to one

¹² "William Wirt to the Committee of the National Anti-Masonic Convention, Baltimore, September 28, 1831," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLI (September, 1831), 84; Edward Stanwood, *History of the Presidency*, I, 156.

¹³ "Address to the American People," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLI (September, 1831), 167; Edward Stanwood, *History of the Presidency*, I, 156.

¹⁴ Erik McKinley Eriksson, "New Viewpoints in the Jacksonian Period," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXV (December, 1934), 170.

¹⁵ "Proceedings," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLI (September, 1831), 110.

¹⁶ "The Anti-Masonic Conventions of 1831," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLI (September, 1831), 85.

¹⁷ *Address of the Anti-Masonic Republican Convention to the People of Massachusetts Held at Worcester, September 5 and 6, 1832*; "The Anti-Masonic Convention, Utica, New York, June 21, 1832," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLII (September, 1832), 338.

¹² Edward Stanwood, *History of the Presidency*, I, 156; "The National Anti-Masonic Convention," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLI (September, 1831), 83, 108.

¹³ *Address of the Anti-Masonic Republican Convention to the People of Massachusetts*, held at Worcester, September 5 and 6, 1832, p. 2.

¹⁴ "The National Anti-Masonic Convention," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLI (September, 1831), 109.

hundred and sixty-eight. There were twenty-six from Virginia, eighteen from Ohio, seventeen from New York, fourteen from Kentucky, ten from Maryland, nine from Massachusetts, eight from New Jersey, six from Vermont, five each from Maine, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Delaware and the District of Columbia, four from Rhode Island, three from North Carolina, two each from Louisiana and Indiana, and one from Tennessee.

There were sixty-five delegates who were unable to attend. Virginia had nineteen not present, New York had seventeen, Massachusetts and Maine each had five, Delaware had four, Connecticut had three, Vermont and Ohio had two each, and Rhode Island, Maryland, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, and the District of Columbia each had one. Otherwise there would have been two hundred and thirty-three representatives present. It is to be noticed that South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Missouri never sent in the names of delegates to this convention.²¹

How these delegates were chosen is a matter of conjecture. They were not a body of volunteers, however, for a committee on credentials was appointed. The convention, after having made Abner Lacock of Pennsylvania president *pro tempore*, adjourned to allow this committee to do its work. It examined the credentials and approved one hundred and fifty-six delegates who took their seats.

Although the delegates from Tennessee had not yet arrived on Tuesday, the organization proceeded on its way. The press was allowed to attend all meetings and a nominating committee of five was appointed. It recommended the appointment of one president and two vice-presidents to carry on the administrative duties of the assemblage. James Barbour of Virginia was thereupon chosen as permanent president of the convention. The committee of five also requested the president to write to Charles Carroll of Carrollton and Governor George Howard to invite them to take seats within the bar. The former sent his regrets due to ill health to this meeting.

It was then moved that the convention "... proceed to nominate a candidate for the office of President of the United States, to be supported by those who are opposed to the re-election of Andrew Jackson." The vote was recommended to be taken by the representatives individually, rising from their seats when they were called by states in geographical order. The nomination of Henry Clay of Ken-

tucky was unanimous for the Presidential nominee, as was that of John Sergeant of Pennsylvania for the Vice-Presidential candidacy. Thereupon a committee of one member from the delegation of each state and the District of Columbia was created to inform Mr. Clay of his nomination and to request him to accept it. This was the first time that this striking feature of informing the candidate was introduced by making a pilgrimage to the candidate instead of notifying him by mail.

The convention had been all primed to nominate Clay. In fact, that worthy man had written a letter to Barbour on December 10, 1831, to satisfy the possibility of the question of his willingness to be a Presidential candidate for the National Republicans. It was read to the body of delegates just prior to his nomination. It is no wonder then that there were repeated cheers from the crowd of spectators when he was unanimously elected.

In accordance with the recommendation of the Committee of Five "... a committee of seven were chosen to prepare an address to the citizens of the United States to carry into effect the objects of this convention." As a result, the delegates, although they adopted no resolutions, did issue a severe criticism of the administration. It censured the administration of Jackson for corruption, partisanship and abuse of power. It condemned it for its hostility toward internal improvements, treachery in the tariff question, the war on the Bank, and its attitude upon the affair with the Cherokee Indians. Then this assembly, which had opened its meetings with prayer, adjourned with a recommendation for a national assembly of young men to meet in Washington.²²

This convention of young men recommended by the National Convention took place at nine o'clock in the City Hall, Washington, D.C., May 7, 1832. Upon being called to order by N. Sergeant of Pennsylvania, Zaccheus Collins Lee of Maryland was appointed president *pro tempore*, and James Barbour of Virginia was chosen as secretary. Two committees were chosen, one to find an appropriate meeting place, and the other to examine credentials. The latter committee was composed of one member from each delegation.

There were three hundred and thirteen delegates present at this assembly. There were fifty-two from Maryland, forty-six from Pennsylvania, forty from Virginia, thirty from Massachusetts, twenty-six from New York, twenty-two from New Jersey, twenty-one from Ohio, fifteen from Delaware, fourteen

²¹ "The National Republican Convention, 1831," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLI (September, 1831), 282; *Journal of the National Republican Convention Which Assembled in the City of Baltimore, December 12, 1831, for the Nominations of Candidates for the Offices of President and Vice-President*; Edward Stanwood, *History of the Presidency*, I, 157.

²² *Journal of the National Republican Convention . . . Baltimore . . . December 12, 1831*, pp. 1-27; "The National Republican Convention, 1831," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLI (September, 1831), 281-282; Edward Stanwood, *History of the Presidency*, I, 157.

from Connecticut, eleven from Maine, eight each from Kentucky and the District of Columbia, seven each from Rhode Island and Vermont, six from New Hampshire, one each from South Carolina, Louisiana and Michigan Territory. There were no representatives from North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Missouri and Illinois.

William A. Johnson of Maryland was elected the permanent president. There were also four vice-presidents and two secretaries chosen unanimously. A committee was chosen to draft an address to the young men of the United States to set forth the objects and views of the convention. A second committee drew up ". . . resolutions upon such subjects as shall be deemed proper to be acted upon by this convention. . . ."

This latter committee contributed the most unique function to any convention up to this time. It adopted a set of resolutions advocating a republican form of government and the protective tariff, approved the nomination of Henry Clay and John Sergeant for President and Vice-President respectively and criticized the policies of Andrew Jackson. These resolutions have often been given the honor of being the first political platform ever adopted by a national convention. The exception to this contention would be the already mentioned address to the people of the Anti-Masonic Convention of 1831.

There were eight resolutions in all. Each question was taken up separately prior to its adoption. The time consumed over them was short. They were taken up at two o'clock in the afternoon. The assembly adjourned from five to six o'clock, and then after two hours of discussion they were adopted unanimously at eight o'clock in the evening.

Besides these resolutions there was an *Address to the People*. It criticized the administration of Jackson even more severely than the resolutions, especially for his foreign and domestic policies. It eulogized Henry Clay, supported the Bank of the United States and the Federal Judiciary. The two latter were much mooted questions of the time.

The convention, which accepted the nominations of Clay and Sergeant which had been made by the National Republican Convention, invited Mr. Carroll to be present. But, as usual, Mr. Carroll was forced to decline due to the infirmities of old age. For five days the members of the convention fraternized around political congeniality. Then, they adjourned with a long speech of the president ringing in their ears. Some of the delegates must have become restless as instanced by his concluding remarks which were recorded as ". . . the hour admonishes me that I am trespassing: for I am detaining the boat for Mt. Vernon." The boat, however, was not kept waiting for long, for it is elsewhere stated that the delegates were soon off to

venerate the patriot, George Washington, in his final resting place.²³

The Democratic or Republican Convention, as it was then called, which met in Baltimore on May 21, 1832, illustrated what a hold Andrew Jackson had in his own party. Jackson had desired that Martin Van Buren of New York should be made Vice-Presidential candidate. He, therefore, set machinery into motion to effect it since Van Buren was not the free choice of the Republicans.

Jackson formulated a plan to make him so. Its execution was given over to Major Lewis, second auditor of the Treasury and Amos Kendall, the fourth auditor. The scheme thus nurtured by these members of the Lower Cabinet was announced in the *Globe* in June, 1831, though a notice that a convention would be held on the third Monday in May, 1832, in Baltimore, ". . . to nominate a candidate for Vice-President, and to take such other measures in support of the re-election of Andrew Jackson as may be deemed necessary."

This convention, thus announced by the Presidential mouthpiece, was copied by all the party organs in the country. Therefore, the assemblage comprised of three hundred and forty-four members from twenty-three states, convened at eleven o'clock on the morning of May 21, 1832, at the Athenaeum in Baltimore. According to the rules, the state representatives were entitled to but two hundred and eighty-three electoral votes. Robert Lucas of Ohio was made president of the convention, unanimously, on Tuesday, the second day of its meeting.

The states were represented in the following way: Virginia had ninety-four delegates; New Jersey, fifty-three; New York, thirty-six; Ohio, twenty-two; Tennessee, sixteen; Massachusetts, fourteen; Pennsylvania, twelve; Kentucky and Maryland, each eleven; Maine and Delaware, each nine; New Hampshire and Connecticut, each eight; Vermont and South Carolina, each six; North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama and Indiana, each five; Rhode Island, four; Mississippi and Illinois, each two; Louisiana, one. Five delegates were also present from the District of Columbia.

It was also in the second day that the committee on rules comprising one delegate from each state, resolved "That each state be entitled in the nomination to be made of a candidate, for the Vice-Presidency, to the number of votes equal to the number to which they will be entitled in the electoral colleges, under the new appointment, in voting for President and Vice-President; and that two-thirds of the whole number of the votes in the con-

²³ Edward Stanwood, *History of the Presidency*, I, 157-159; *Proceedings of the National Republican Convention of Young Men Which Assembled in the City of Washington, May 7, 1832*, pp. 1-6.

vention shall be necessary to constitute a choice." This was the origin of the two-thirds rule, which became, until recently, the fabric of all nominations in Democratic Party conventions.

After electing four vice-presidents and three secretaries, and hearing the regrets of Charles Carroll to be present, the delegates proceeded to ballot for the nomination of a candidate for the Vice-Presidency. It was already a foregone conclusion that Andrew Jackson was to be choice for President. This convention therefore was peculiar in contrast to the others already mentioned in regard to the fact that it was called to nominate only a Vice-Presidential candidate.

On the first ballot Martin Van Buren received two hundred and eight votes to the forty-nine given to Philip Pendleton Barbour of Virginia and the twenty-six cast for Colonel Richard Mentor Johnson of Kentucky. The Barbour votes had come from Virginia, South Carolina, Maryland, North Carolina and Alabama, while Colonel Johnson had the full vote of Kentucky and Indiana and two from Illinois. Since Van Buren had received more than two-thirds of all the votes cast, he was declared the nominee.²⁴

Two instances may be cited which occurred for the first time in political party conventions. First, the five delegates of the District of Columbia, who were not allowed to vote for the President and Vice-President under the Constitution, were allowed to cast their ballots in the convention for the Vice-Presidential nominee. Second, a communication was received from Indiana stating they would yield their vote which they had given to a favorite son, Johnson, to Martin Van Buren.

It has been reported that measures had to be taken to make recalcitrants acquiesce in the matter of voting for Van Buren. Major John Henry Eaton, who had been Secretary of War, was said to have gone as a delegate from Tennessee to Baltimore opposed to his nomination. However, upon arrival he is supposed to have found a letter awaiting him from Major William B. Lewis, and so he yielded.

At the "Jackson State Convention" of Pennsylvania, Van Buren was reported as having no supporters. The Republicans of that state had been in favor of the bank, and had become angry at Van Buren because the New York legislature had adopted resolutions against it. In that convention, it was rumored, there was a long contest, with the result that Wilkins, not Van Buren, was nominated. So strong was the opposition to the latter that the convention pledged that if Wilkins should with-

draw for any reason George Mifflin Dallas should be his substitute, not Van Buren. Nevertheless, in the National Convention at Baltimore every vote was cast for Van Buren, yet the Pennsylvania electors obeyed instructions and gave Wilkins their vote at the time of the vote in the electoral college.

The Republican Convention appointed a committee to notify Van Buren of his nomination. Then after affirming that the delegates reposed "... the highest confidence in the purity, patriotism and talents of Andrew Jackson," and stating they desired his re-election, they adjourned until the next day at which time they came to attend the address to the people. But the committee, which they had appointed to draw it up, reported that the time was too short to accomplish the writing of such an address. It suggested that the various delegations each write one of their own.

Perhaps the delegates did not want to commit themselves on the question of the Bank. Whatever the case may be, the representatives from New York issued an address to the people of that state after this convention in which it did not uphold all the foreign and domestic policies of Andrew Jackson. The Democrats in New York had gone on record against the Bank, while in Pennsylvania it was still a cherished institution by all parties. That may be one reason, at least, for the *Address to the People in New York*.

There were a few minor conventions, also, held in 1832. There was the Jackson-Barbour convention in Charlottesville, Virginia, in June where P. P. Barbour was formally nominated as the Vice-Presidential candidate in conjunction with General Jackson. Later in the month, there was a convention in North Carolina, to which eighteen counties sent delegates. But these conventions were of a local nature, and came to naught.²⁵

In 1835, there were two conventions of political parties. The Anti-Masonic delegates met and limited themselves to the nominations of candidates for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency. They did nothing toward setting forth a platform nor sending an address to the people. General William Henry Harrison of Ohio was their Presidential choice, while Francis Granger of New York was their candidate for the Vice-Presidency.

The Democrats, however, did hold in that year an important assemblage which crystallized the nominating system and set a basis for the modern party convention. In February, 1835, President Jackson

²⁴ Summary of the Proceedings of a Convention of Republican Delegates from the Several States in the Union for the Purpose of Nominating a Candidate for the Office of Vice-President of the United States, Held at Baltimore, in the State of Maryland, May, 1832, pp. 1-8.

²⁵ Summary of the Proceedings of a Convention of Republican Delegates, May, 1832, pp. 1-8; Address of the Republican General Committee of Young Men of the City and County of New York Friendly to the Election of General Andrew Jackson to the Presidency to the Republican Electors of the State of New York, pp. 4-14; Edward Stanwood, History of the Presidency, I, 161-162.

had written a letter suggesting a national nominating convention composed of delegates "fresh from the people." This convention met in Baltimore on May 20, 1835. Andrew Stevenson, who was later to become Speaker of the House of Representatives, was made president of its sessions.

Twenty-two states and the two territories of Michigan and Arkansas were represented. There were reported to have been six hundred and twenty-six delegates present, four hundred and twenty-two of which came from the states of Maryland, Virginia and New Jersey. Maryland, alone, was said to have contributed one hundred eighty-one members. The rest of the delegations were distributed thus: one hundred from Virginia, sixty-three from New Jersey, sixty from Pennsylvania, forty-two from New York, twenty from New Hampshire, eighteen each from Massachusetts and Ohio, sixteen from Maine, fifteen from North Carolina, fourteen from Delaware, eleven from Indiana, eight from Rhode Island, seven from Vermont, six from Connecticut, three each from Georgia and Louisiana, two each from Mississippi, Missouri and Michigan, and one from Arkansas. There were none from South Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama and Illinois.

The state conventions which had not been called to select their delegates did not desire to prevent any of their own members from taking part. They, therefore, resolved that all should be delegates. Due to this, many irregularities occurred.

Tennessee had sent no delegates, but a citizen of the state, self-styled "Mr. Rucher," happened to be in Baltimore. He presented himself at the convention, was admitted and cast the fifteen votes allotted to Tennessee. He was accorded this privilege because he was known to have been in favor of Van Buren. There were two sets of delegates who presented themselves from Pennsylvania. Each group of thirty was admitted. This was said to have satisfied neither party. The vote of the state was allowed when they voted on opposite sides.

At this convention the two-thirds rule was at first rejected by a vote of two hundred and thirty-

one to two hundred and ten. The delegates said that it was unrepresentative. It was later reconsidered and adopted.

Nominations were then in order. Van Buren was chosen, unanimously, for President; while Colonel Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, had one hundred and seventy-eight votes, and William C. River of Virginia had eighty-seven ballots for the Vice-Presidential nomination. Before voting, Virginia had given notice that it would not uphold a candidate who did not support the party principles. Therefore, although Johnson had received the necessary two-thirds vote, Virginia refused to accept him.

The opposition decided that this was a "Van Buren Convention." They not only said that it was made up of officeholders, but even went to the trouble of counting and publishing their names to prove it. Many of those that were not Democrats called it the revival of the caucus system, only in a more objectionable form.²⁶

Whatever it was, the convention as a nominating device for Presidential and Vice-Presidential candidates had come to stay. For these early conventions had set a precedent that all states were to be represented by delegates elected by the party in their respective states. They had established the idea that they were to meet for nominating national candidates and for setting up party platforms, although the later Democratic platform of 1840 has been conceded to be really the first of its kind.²⁷ Out of this embryonic party convention life of the last century was, finally, to rise the present mighty party convention which not only nominates candidates and promulgates platforms, but also conducts campaigns in behalf of the party and casts votes for their candidates at the time of elections. This is the outcome today of these political party activities of the early nineteenth century.

²⁶ Edward Stanwood, *History of the Presidency*, I, 181-183; "Presidential Conventions," *Niles' Weekly Register*, XLVIII (March, 1835), 227-229.

²⁷ *The Encyclopaedia Britannica*, Eleventh Edition, VIII, 2.

Your Money's Worth

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Gold is a measuring unit of money just as a yard is a measuring unit of distance. When money is on the gold standard, the purchasing power of gold and that of currency are the same. However, gold causes all money to fluctuate too violently in "value"

—purchasing power—because any one commodity tends to be unstable. This means that one dollar might buy a bushel of wheat in one year and two bushels in another as the "price"—wheat's value—varies with supply and demand. Supply and de-

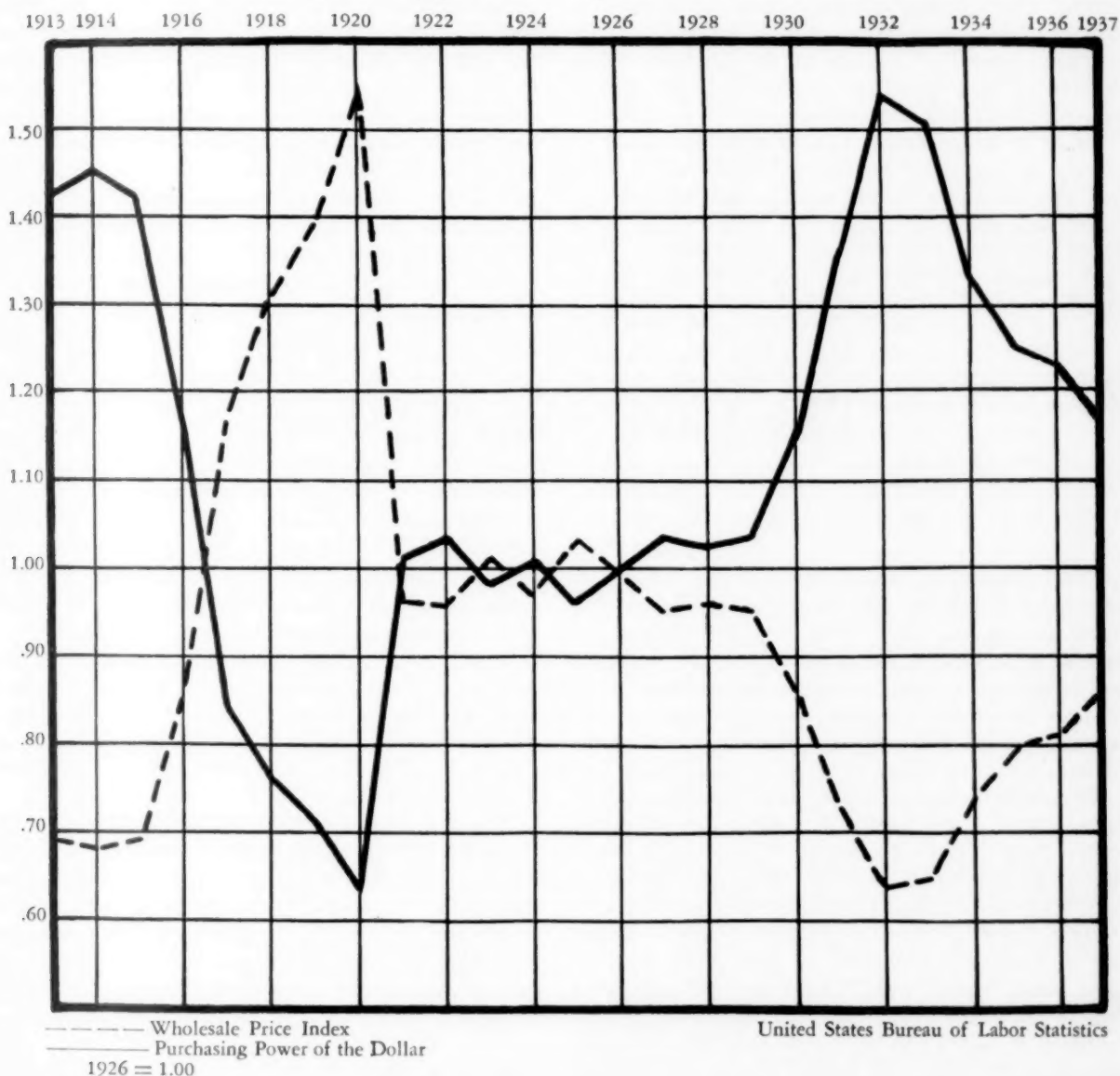
mand, however, have no effect on the "price" of gold, but they do affect its "value"—what it is worth in terms of wheat and other commodities.

We may infer from this situation that the gold standard has not guaranteed stability of prices. There is, however, no reason to suppose that absolute stability of the level of prices should be the objective of monetary policy. Should this be the correct objective, the gold standard would probably not be an obstacle to its attainment. Many prefer a continuation and a modernization of the standard to a monetary policy of experimentation, considering the latter a hinderance to ultimate economic recovery.

The causes which alter the purchasing power of

money from time to time are not our chief interest. We are chiefly concerned with the serious consequences and disturbances which result from changes in the general price level, especially as these fluctuations affect the settling of deferred obligations; and the establishment of a system that will enable debts to be paid with equal purchasing power, despite changes in the value of money.

The burden upon the debtor class, particularly farmers is steadily increased by any prolonged downward trend of prices. Rapid declines in farm prices make it difficult to pay debts incurred when prices were high. During the World War, for example, American farmers contracted debts with wheat selling above a dollar a bushel. Later, with the same



Creditors and debtors have lost or gained as prices have risen and fallen. A debt incurred in 1920 (high prices) and paid in 1932 (low prices) would be unfair to the debtor, as he would return a larger amount of purchasing power than he had borrowed. If the price change were reversed, the creditor would lose.

unit of this commodity selling for less than a dollar, they had to sell three times as much wheat in order to pay back the same number of dollars as they had borrowed.

Changes in the general price level—average of all prices—are of serious consequences to all classes. Every individual, when the general price level rises (inflation), finds himself paying more money to satisfy his needs, that is, his income has less purchasing power. But in periods of hard times or depression, his money buys more with every drop in prices (deflation) and it is like having his income increased.

The most marked effect of changes in purchasing power at such times can be seen as between the debtor and creditor classes. Loan collections in dollars of high purchasing power (low prices), for example, represent a gain to the creditor, while dollars of low purchasing power (high prices) represent a gain to the debtor.

Since it is generally agreed that the value of money is measured by its command over goods and services and that the relation existing between value and price in connection with money is of prime importance to everyone, the question arises as to whether or not any remedy is available to eliminate much of the injustice which now exists

between debtors and creditors due to fluctuating prices.

The answer to our question may be found in a table of price changes kept by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. These tables indicate the alterations in the level of prices and show the reciprocal of change in the purchasing power of money, the latter varying inversely with the former. The advance or decline in the general price level is determined by comparing the average prices for any year with those of the base year. Although the year 1913 has been generally used as a base, at the present time the year 1926 is coming into more general use.

Violent fluctuations in prices would not endanger our economic system if debts were no longer paid with the same number of dollars borrowed, but with the number of dollars necessary to return the borrowed amount of purchasing power. Creditors and debtors would have equal assurance that money would buy the same amount of commodities or services at any future date as on the day it was borrowed. Neither, on the average, would lose or gain if the inequalities and economic dangers resulting from rapid price changes were thus eliminated. In other words, the dollar should be a measure as constant and as satisfactory as a yardstick.

The Civil War in Song

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"Sing, sing! for singing is the thing," seems to have been the motto which inspired the North and South during the Civil War. In Confederacy and Union alike the tremendous emotional upheaval accompanying the conflict found an outlet in song. Soldiers about the campfire, young people at club meetings or parties, women at their household tasks all sang with that ardor which patriotism inspires.

The introduction of songs was accomplished in various ways. Some notable few were first presented before large groups by singers of passing renown and were afterwards printed. The majority, however, made their initial appearance in print.

Collections of war songs were eagerly sought and undoubtedly profitable to publishers. One of these song books, which went by the suggestive title of *Touch the Elbow Songster*, appeared in three volumes. It had a trio of "grim looking volunteers glaring forth from the yellow cover and poising their bayonets ready for charge." A volume of post war date, but probably in the same spirit, is in the

writer's possession. It is a fairly large book on the cover of which is a realistic picture of the battle of Lookout Mountain.

Another favorite method of broadcasting a song was to print the words on a broadside which might or might not be ornamented by a patriotic design. No less than 600 different lyrics were put out in this fashion by a Northern publisher, and the Southerners did not lag far behind.

The armies did not swell the publishers' profits by purchases of song sheets or books. Generally, songs were introduced by men who had learned them while on furlough and who, on return to the army, sang them to their comrades. Other songs were indigenous to the army, and little known to the civilian population. One of these was "Poor Kitty Popcorn," a folklore gem:

Poor Kitty Popcorn, buried in a snow drift now!
Never more we'll hear the music of her glad-some
song

"Me-o-o-o-w!"

Oh, she had a happy home beneath the Southern sky

But she packed her goods and left it when our troops came by

And she fell into the column with a low, glad cry—

"Me-o-o-o-w!"¹

After the war Walt Whitman wrote:

I hear America singing, the various carols I hear. . . .

One who listened to American singing during the desperate days of the war might also have heard "different carols." When the singers were in a humorous frame of mind they turned to songs to suit their mood. Most of these mirth provoking selections were in dialect. Perhaps the best known of these dialect songs was Henry C. Work's, "Kingdom Coming." It has four stanzas which develop the idea of the Negroes' joy at the departure of their "cruel master," and it is a fairly faithful picture of the way in which the colored people reacted to the coming of the Union troops. The chorus gives some idea of the spirit of the thing:

De massa run, ha, ha!
De darkeys stay, ho, ho!
It mu' be now de kingdom comin'
And de year of jubilo.

Songs were not confined to Negro themes. The numerous Germans who fought for the North were celebrated in amusing songs like, "I Goes to Fight Mit Segel," and "Corporal Schnapps." The latter song tells the pathetically funny tale of a volunteer whose fair fraulein induced him to join the army and then married a rival. A quotation from the chorus may suggest the nature of the entire song:

Oh! mine fraulein! You ist so ferry unkind!
You coes mit Hans to Zhermany to live
Und leaves poor Schnapps behind.
Leaves poor Schnapps behind.

The following is a ditty which appealed to the Southern sense of humor:

Jeff Davis rode a white horse,
Abe Lincoln rode a mule,
Jeff Davis was a white man,
Abe Lincoln was a fool.

When the grief and agony of the war were uppermost in the minds of the people, there were pathetic selections which gave voice to their emotions.

The doleful:

Just before the battle, mother,
I am thinking most of you.

made the song, which took its title from the first line, a great favorite in the North. It played upon the emotions, and the "heaven, home, and mother" appeal was irresistible. One of the same type was "Mother Kissed Me in My Dreams." It is alleged that the song was sung by a wounded private to cheer comrades at Gettysburg. Just what is cheering about the song the reader may determine for himself from the stanza quoted:

Lying on my dying bed
Thro' the dark and silent night,
Praying for the coming day,
Came a vision to my sight.
Near me stood the forms I loved,
In the sunlight's mellow gleam.
Folding me unto her breast,
Mother kissed me in my dream.

"Starved in Prison," "The Vacant Chair," "Drummer Boy of Shiloh," "The Faded Coat of Blue," and many more moved the North to tears. Southern songs were very largely set to sad tunes.

Stirring songs, often upon the lips of those at home and in the field, served to revive war-weary spirits. In the field of martial and inspiring lyrics the South equalled if not exceeded the North. It is possible to catch from the songs something of the fine zeal and patriotism which animated the Confederate army and civilian population. There was a tendency for these Southern songs to be more bitter than the Northern. One of the many martial songs of the Confederacy was "The Bonnie Blue Flag."

The "Song of the Texas Rangers," which was written for the Ladies' Military Fair at New Orleans in 1861 is also a good example of the spirited Southern song:

The morning star is paling; the campfires flicker low;
Our steeds are madly neighing for the bugle bids us go;
So put the foot in stirrup and shake the bridle free,
For today the Texas Rangers must cross the Tennessee.
With Wharton for our leader, we'll chase the dastard foe
Till our horses bathe their fetlocks in the deep, blue Ohio.

It suggests a further characteristic of Southern songs of its type—their identification with some particular group or leader in the Confederate army. "We'll Be Free in Maryland," which names half the Confederate leaders, illustrates the same thing.

Another popular trick of song writers was to adapt an old and well known song to the requirements of the moment. "The Blue Coats Are Over the Border" reveals the fact that the song was modelled closely upon the Scotch "The Blue Bon-

¹ Carl Sandburg, *The American Songbag* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1927), p. 430.

nets Are Over the Border." The adaptation of Rouget de Lisle's immortal war cry was the "Southern Marseillaise," a song particularly pleasing to Louisiana regiments.

Among Union men everywhere the great rallying song was "The Battle Cry of Freedom." The music for "Marching Through Georgia" gave it a soldierly swing although the words are not especially elevated. A martial Union ditty which, like so many of the South, was especially connected with a certain section of the army was "The Zouaves." The chorus ran like this:

Onward, Zouaves!
Do nothing by halves;
Home to the hilt with the bay'net,
Zouaves.

The tenderer emotions of the weary and homesick soldiers and the anxious folk in city or countryside were made articulate by several songs. For the men in gray, "Lorena" was the perfect expression of their feelings. It was "the great sentimental song of the South during the war period," and as such deserves quoting in part. The words suggest the lugubrious strains to which it was set:

A hundred months have passed, Lorena,
Since last I held that hand in mine,
And felt the pulse beat fast, Lorena,
Though mine beat faster, far, than thine.
A hundred months—'twas flowery May,
When up the hilly slope we climbed,
To watch the dying of the day,
And hear the distant church bells chime.

Both Northern and Southern troops found union of feeling in singing "When This Cruel War Is Over," or, as it is sometimes called, "Weeping Sad and Lonely." Originally a Northern song, it was altered to fit Southern needs, and a million copies are said to have been sold during the war. Since it, too, was a prime favorite, a part of it must be given here:

Dearest love, do you remember,
When we last did meet,
How you told me that you loved me,
Kneeling at my feet?
Oh, how proud you stood before me,
In your suit of blue,
When you vowed to me and country
Ever to be true.

Chorus

Weeping, sad and lonely,
Hopes and fears how vain!
Yet praying, when this cruel war is over,
Praying that we meet again!

What was true of the British in the Crimea applied equally well to American armies where:

Each ear recalled a different name,
But all sang "Annie Laurie."

"Tenting Tonight," "The Girl I Left Behind," "Her Bright Smile Haunts Me Still," and "One I Left There,"—the last two Southern songs—were of the same sentimental type.

The feeling of the divided nation did not tend to express itself in hymns. Julia Ward Howe's "Battle Hymn of the Republic" is the one conspicuous exception which has come down to us. "To Canaan" exemplifies the numerous "spontaneous lyrics" which were composed in an instant and died as quickly. They were all set to old, familiar tunes. There is something suggestive of Cromwell's praying "Iron-sides" in its words:

Where are you going, soldiers,
With banner, gun, and sword?
We're marching south to Canaan
To battle for the Lord.
What Captain leads your armies
Along the rebel coasts?
The Mighty One of Israel,
His name is Lord of Hosts.

Of a semi-religious nature were songs like "The First Gun is Fired, May God Protect the Right," and "God Bless Our Brave Young Volunteers." Numerous Negro spirituals grew up during the war. Like all songs of their type they were developed orally, and contain frequent repetitions. "Pray On" expresses joyful anticipation of coming freedom. "My Father, How Long!" and "Meet, O Lord," are other spirituals. "Many Thousand Go" is one of the most representative of these Negro melodies, and runs in this fashion:

No more peck o' corn for me,
No more, no more;
No more peck o' corn for me,
Many tousand go.
No more driver's lash for me,
No more, no more;
No more driver's lash for me,
Many tousand go.

Not all songs enjoyed equal popularity, and some which were cherished at home were held of less merit in camp. Usually songs favored by the soldiers were less elevated. To the embattled army, "The Battle Hymn of the Republic" was too delicate. The bit of humorous song which pleased the men in blue was entitled "There Was an Old Soldier." It has furnished the idea for a parody disparaging Henry Ford's early models. The words were these:

Oh there was an old soldier and he had a wooden leg,

He had no tobacco, but tobacco he could beg;
Another old soldier as sly as a fox,
He always had tobacco in his old tobacco box.²

The song goes on to recount how the provident soldier refused to supply his wooden legged comrade, who in a fit of anger, used his wooden leg to stab the unobliging man.

"Three Hundred Thousand More," "Marching Through Georgia," "Battle Cry of Freedom," "Tenting Tonight," and songs like these were sung mostly by the Union army.

In the South, with the prolongation of suffering, the better grade lyrics were discarded for rough and ready songs set to popular airs. Of the songs generally current, "Dixie," "And Yet and Yet," and "Lorena," were best liked and without vulgarity.

Whistling to keep one's courage was supplanted during the war by singing. "The Battle Cry of Freedom" is supposed to have been the most influential of all the early Northern war songs, and one who has listened to its fiery strains cannot doubt this. It is said to have strengthened the weakening morale of the army in the early part of the struggle when the lack of Union successes was disheartening. It is also claimed that Confederates who heard it were appalled by its determined ring.

All war songs are more or less pieces of propaganda. Especially was this true of "We Are Coming Father Abraham," which was written to help meet Lincoln's call for extra troops in July, 1862.

A story is current to the effect that shortly after Lee's surrender some Confederate officers requested a group of Union men to sing their war songs. One of the Confederates expressed the belief that the Southern morale would have been measurably better had it been bolstered up by such lively songs as cheered Northern hearts. This may or may not be true. At any rate there were Confederate songs which were inspiring and of the propaganda type. Chief of these are "Maryland, My Maryland," and "The Volunteers." The latter is quoted as an example of the celebrated Southern spirit:

Go soldiers, arm you for the fight,
God shield the cause of Justice, Right;
May all return with victory crowned,
May every heart with joy abound.
May each deserve the laurel crown
Nor one to meet his lady's frown.
Your cause is good, 'tis honor bright,
'Tis virtue, country, home, and right.
Then should you die for love of these,
We'll waft your names upon the breeze;

² *Ibid.*, p. 432. This is similar to an old French song, "Jar du ban Tobac."

The waves will sing your lullaby,
Your country mourn your latest sigh.

Songs of the Negroes' joy at Emancipation may also be classed as propaganda.

It is possible to trace in the songs the progress of the war. Selections chiefly from Union sources have been made for this purpose. The war opened with "John Brown's Body." In the South it was followed by "Maryland, My Maryland." After Lincoln's second call for troops came the "Battle Cry of Freedom," and later in 1861, "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," as the sobered people sought something more lofty in tone. "The Picket Guard," or its more expressive title, "All Quiet Along the Potomac," reflects the period of waiting in 1861-62 when McClellan's forces saw no action. The battle of Shiloh, April 5-7, 1862, is commemorated in the "Drummer Boy of Shiloh"; while "We Are Coming Father Abraham" deals with Lincoln's call for three hundred thousand troops.

The grim horror undergone by Northern captives in Andersonville and Libbey prisons from 1863 on found voice in such forgotten things as "Starved in Prison," and the more familiar "Tramp, Tramp, Tramp," the sub-title of which is the "Prisoner's Hope." Pathetic songs increased in number as the war grew more bitter.

Echoes of the Emancipation Proclamation, which became effective in 1863 are found in the spirituals, and in "The Little Octoroon," a quaint song forgotten save by those who lived during the war. It tells the story of a slave mother and child in a Southern valley hearing the tramp of the army, whose coming meant their freedom. The year 1863 was also the great year of Copperhead activities—the year when Vallandigham of Ohio was sent into exile for his anti-Union activities. A sprightly song, which like "The Little Octoroon" survives only in memory, deals with the Cooperheads and Jefferson Davis in the following manner:

"Ho, ho!" the Copperheads they cried,
"O'er Uncle Sam we're bound to ride"
And loud they blustered and they lied,
And all for Jefferson D., Sir!
And when we found their fiery pack
Was trying to keep our army back
From following on the traitor's track
Said we, "Their copper heads we'll crack."
And that's the cause all the row,
For treason here we'll not allow;
And Uncle Sam shall never bow
To Jefferson Davis anyhow.

The exploits of Grant, Sherman and Sheridan in 1864 and 1865 were sources of inspiration to song makers. "We'll Fight It Out Here on the Old Union Line" was a song variation of Grant's famous words

as he began the costly Wilderness campaign. Sheridan's deeds, especially the famous ride from Winchester were praised in songs like "Honor to Sheridan." Shortly after Sherman started across Georgia the famous "Marching Through Georgia" appeared. After the capture of Savannah came "When Sherman Marched Down to the Sea." "On, On, On, the Boys Come Marching" is the sequel to "Tramp, Tramp, Tramp," and also marks the Union penetration of the Confederacy.

When the cruel war was over the boys in blue came home to the strains of "When Johnny Comes Marching Home," a favorite song that took on new

popularity.

"Dixie," dear to all Southern hearts, appeared in several different forms. The words now used were written by Dan Emmet for Bryant's Minstrel Show in New York just *prior* to the war. This version was generally accepted in the South and sung during the conflict.

Songs celebrating naval exploits are not easy to find, although it is recorded that there were several which centered about the names of Faragut and Winslow. The only song of this sort which has come to the writer's attention is a tribute to Captain Semmes and the Confederate *Alabama*.

India: Keystone of the British Empire

FRANCES NORENE AHL

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India is the keystone of Britain's power and greatness as a world-wide Empire. It is a vast subcontinent housing nearly three-fourths of the population of that empire—one fifth of all of the people of the world.

A great triangular peninsula jutting out of southern Asia into the Indian ocean, protected on two sides by the sea and guarded on the third by the imperious wall of the highest mountains on earth, India is the greatest fortress ever created.

It has given to the world two out of six of its greatest historic religions. In the Pearl Mosque and the Royal Palace at Delhi and the Taj Mahal at Agra, it has produced an architecture equal to if not surpassing the finest produced by Greece. It has produced two of the world's most eminent men—Gandhi and Tagore. It has left a deeper mark upon the history, the philosophy and the religion of mankind than has any other country.

India is a land of dreams and disappointments, of joys and heartaches, of fabulous wealth and extreme poverty, of luxuriant palaces and horrible hovels, of comedy and tragedy. It is a land of splendor and magnificence, far surpassing anything to be found in either Europe or America. At the same time it is a country of squalor and misery.

Nine-tenths of the people are peasants, living in more than a half-million small villages of two or three hundred inhabitants each. Life is rooted in the village and its customs. The peasants never really get away from the farms.

Yet India is today one of the eight most important industrial areas in the world. But there is no

industrial class in India. The factory workers are country people who, on account of the pressure of poverty in the villages, go into the cities for a few months to earn from whirling machinery what they cannot possibly produce in sufficient quantity from the soil. As a result the factories suffer from the frequent turnover of labor—from the lack of steady and skilled workmen.

The average daily income in the city amounts to about nine cents in American money; in the country, seven cents. A typical income is five cents a day. India has the lowest standard of living in the world—a national standard of living one-thirtieth our own. The average expectation of life is twenty-three years.

One who has not seen India can scarcely imagine the one room huts in which ninety per cent of the mill workers of Bombay live; the primitive village life with its flies and smells, its dirt and diseases, its poverty so severe and terrible and its unbelievable ignorance. India is a land of more than 800,000 beggars and hundreds of starving dogs in every city and village. Only a program of industrialization can free the people of India from their present state of poverty and stagnation.

The range of problems in India today is immense. That country is facing all the outstanding political and economic issues of the West as well as those peculiar to herself. The "no-rent" campaign is expanding into a general attack upon landlordism. Already the taxes are high. Hence there is the difficulty of achieving universal primary education, a pure water supply, sanitation and health.

The racial religious problem is still one of the biggest difficulties facing the country. Three-fourths of the people are Hindus, speaking at least ten distinct languages. While there are four main castes, there are 2300 in all based upon differences of occupation, blood, religious and social tradition. They observe various degrees of exclusion, the main prohibitions being against intermarriage and eating together. Outside the pale of caste stand seventy to eighty million Untouchables—less than any caste—literally outcastes.

Caste is the foundation and fabric of the social life of the Hindus. But today, especially in the larger cities, many of the habits and customs associated with caste are being slowly abolished; and marriage between castes and between Hindus and Mohammedans is not unknown.

Under the new constitution the Untouchables have the right to vote. Furthermore, in Madras province there is one Untouchable Minister and in the United Provinces an Untouchable Speaker. The outcaste leader of today is as highly educated as the one of the highest caste. An unheard of thing happened not long ago when the Maharaja of Mysore opened the temples to the Untouchables.

The religious racial antagonism between the Hindus and the Moslems creates a most serious political difficulty. It is one of the main reasons why Great Britain cannot permit full self-government at the present time.

The new constitution is heavily weighted against radicalism and democracy. It is essentially the work and responsibility of a Conservative government in Great Britain. It is not the product of Indian statesmanship in the way the Australian, Canadian, South African and Irish Free State constitutions were native products. The people of India or the Indian Parliament do not have control over national defense, finance and foreign affairs. Still the constitution grants the franchise to an additional 26,000,000 and advances the country a long way toward home rule.

All parties in India are hostile to the new constitution because of the limitations upon self-government. In the elections last year, the National Congress party carried six provinces, was the leading party in three more, and did poorly in only two. The issue on which the Congress went to the country called for the complete and uncompromising rejection of the new constitution. Not until July did the Congress party agree to permit the Congressmen in the legislatures, where they were in a majority, to form ministries.

The apparent calm throughout India today is not

the calm of contentment, good will and understanding. The new constitution will not bring any more peace to India than the Treaty of Versailles has brought to Europe.

The committee of the Congress party has announced that the fight against the constitution will go on in every possible way. Leaders of the party have told me that they were going to wait for three years and then they would have independence.

Although India has not figured very much on the front pages of the American and foreign press during the last year or so, still it cannot remain unaffected by world conditions.

If Japan makes good in her struggle for mastery in Asia, she will threaten Britain's hold on India. If the projected Kra canal across Siam becomes a reality, it will undoubtedly—according to the present outlook—be dominated by Japan. This domination would enable Japan to do away with Singapore; and Bangkok or a new canal port would rise to first importance. It would enable Japan to threaten the very heart of the British Empire.

With the political situation tense in the Far East, tense in Europe and tense in the Mediterranean, Great Britain cannot afford to have a general disturbance in India. She has already made some liberal concessions under the new constitution. She may be forced to make more. Only recently in two of the provinces where the National Congress party is in control, the cabinets resigned because the governors refused to release certain political prisoners.

If the Empire finds itself at war, the test of the constitution will come. Nehru is not conservative and friendly to Great Britain as Gandhi is. Nehru has far more power in India today than Gandhi ever had. He is especially popular with the younger leaders.

If another world conflict comes, India will not show the chivalry that she showed in the World War when she refused to take advantage of England's difficulties. Had the Government of India Act granted dominion status as pledged on February 6, 1935 by Sir Samuel Hoare, then Secretary of State for India, and as promised by the late J. Ramsay MacDonald, India would have been appeased. Now nothing short of independence will satisfy the strongly nationalistic All-India Congress party.

How long will India continue to be the keystone of the British Empire? If and when she gains her independence, will she be able to maintain it? Will she repeat the history of China? Will she fall into the hands of Japan? The fifth point in Japan's program of expansion in Asia is control of India.

The Motion Picture Study Period

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Each month there appears in this section a synopsis or synopses of films that may be used in the social studies classroom. The films selected are those that can be obtained free, or by simply paying transportation charges. They include topics in the fields of industry, agriculture, transportation and business. The publishers and the author give permission to teachers to mimeograph or to use these synopses and any other material found in this section in any way as an aid to teaching. All films listed are silent films. Methods for using and suggestions for booking films may be found in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXIX (November 1938), 306-309.

STORY OF LEAD SMELTING

Title: Story of Lead Smelting.
Source: United States Bureau of Mines,
United States Department of Interior, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Sponsor: St. Joseph Lead Company.
Topic: Lead, Minerals.
Size: 16 mm. 35 mm.
Reels: 2, length 800 feet, 2000 feet.
Running time: 30 minutes.
Number: 112.

There is a huge lead smelter at Herculaneum, Missouri. Galena or lead sulphide contains 60 to 70% pure lead. It is called a concentrate. The concentrate is fed with proper mixtures of flux in the roasting bins. Here it is twice sintered or roasted in traveling grates over a flame fed by an oil burner. This drives off much sulphur. The sinter reduced, the lead is ready for the furnace. It is mixed with coke, placed in a lorry, dumped into a charging car and moved to the top of the furnace. Since the lead is heavy, when it melts in the furnace it sinks to the bottom and the slag remains on top. There is some lead in the slag and this is thoroughly washed, broken up, and used over again to remove what little lead it contains. The slag is used by railroads for ballast. The crude lead now is ready for the refinery.

The Scotch hearth is of interest. The material is brought to huge pots in which it is roasted. When the sulphur gases form they are filtered through woolen bags before escaping into the outer air. The impurities in the lead form a dross which is removed. The lead is pumped to a casting wheel in which pigs are cast. The machine automatically removes the pigs

from the wheel or molds. They are run over scales to determine the weight and are sent to railroad cars to await shipment. The ore of south-eastern Missouri produces about 4% lead. The drossed or refined lead is called chemical lead. Redrossed lead is 99.99% pure and is of course the best for many purposes.

Employees of the St. Joseph Lead Company are well treated. They are sold milk at cost; they have shower baths at the plant, and have to undergo physical examinations. Hospital treatment is provided for employees who are hurt and everything possible is done to conserve the health of the workers.

TEST

1. Galena or lead sulphide contains about pure lead.
2. Sintering or roasting lead sulphide drives off the
3. When lead melts it while the slag
4. The slag of lead is used by railroads for
5. Lead pigs are cast
6. Redrossed lead is% pure.
7. Impurities from lead are called
8. The slag contains a little lead and is and to be used over again to secure what lead it contains.

SILVER—HEIRLOOMS OF TOMORROW

Title: Silver—Heirlooms of Tomorrow.
Source: United States Bureau of Mines,
United States Department of Interior, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Sponsor: Gorham Silver Manufacturing Company.
Topic: Silver, Minerals.
Size: 16 mm. 35 mm.
Reels: 3, length 1200 feet, 3000 feet.
Running time: 45 minutes.
Number: 141.

Probably woman was the first to demand that silver be used for its beauty and utility. This film points out that Paul Revere, while a great patriot, was also a very excellent silversmith. It shows examples of his workmanship, treasured heirlooms of today.

In New England the Gorham Silver Manufacturing Company makes heirlooms of tomorrow. To make silver objects there must first be made a design.

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

VOLUME XXX, NUMBER 5

THE SOCIAL STUDIES

MAY, 1939

THE UNITED STATES EARLY IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

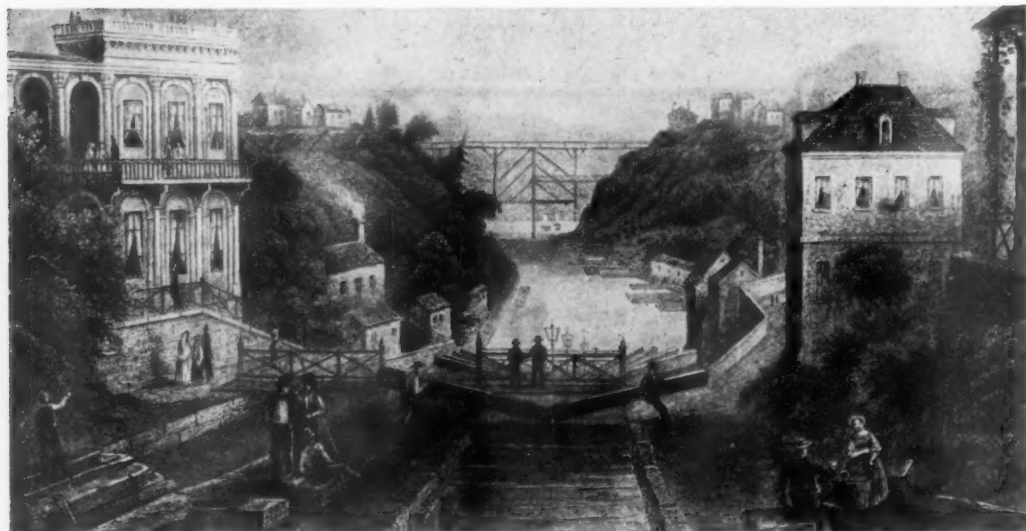


A view of State Street, Boston early in the nineteenth century. From Mary Caroline Crawford's *Old Boston Days and Ways*. Used by permission of the author and the publishers, Little, Brown and Company.



A street parade of the butchers in Philadelphia in 1821. Note the forms of architecture of the houses and the character of the costumes. From the original in the Historical Society of Pennsylvania.

THE UNITED STATES EARLY IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY



The Erie Canal was the first artificial waterway of importance constructed in the United States. It was begun in 1817 and completed in 1825.

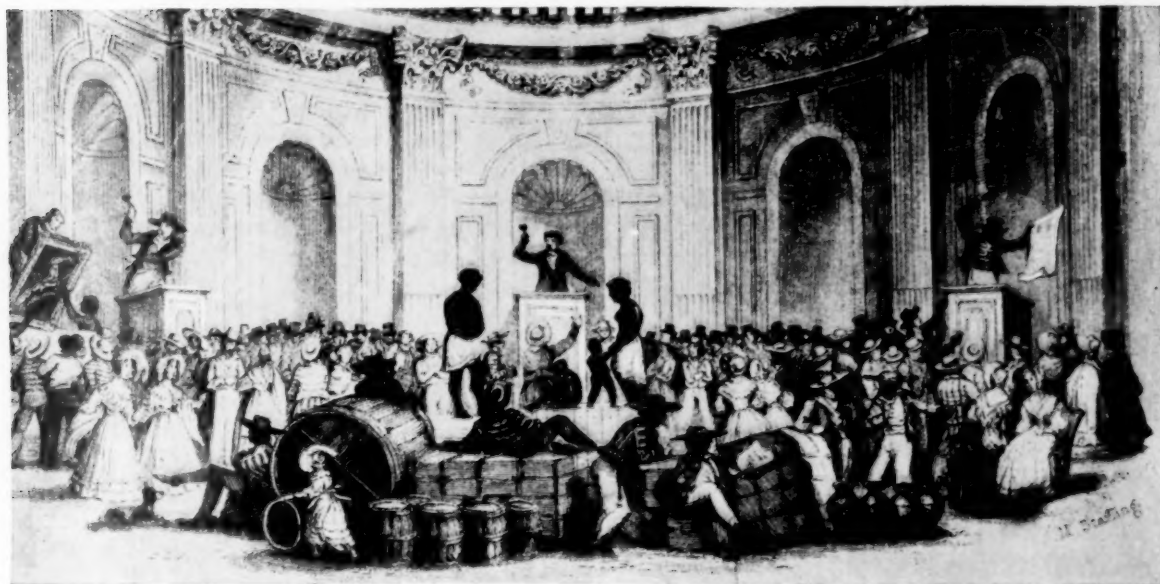


During the westward movement which gained momentum early in the nineteenth century many pioneers traveled at least a part of their journey on the rivers. Often, rafts of the type pictured above were used. Note the long "sweeps" or oars, the cooking arrangements and the hut.

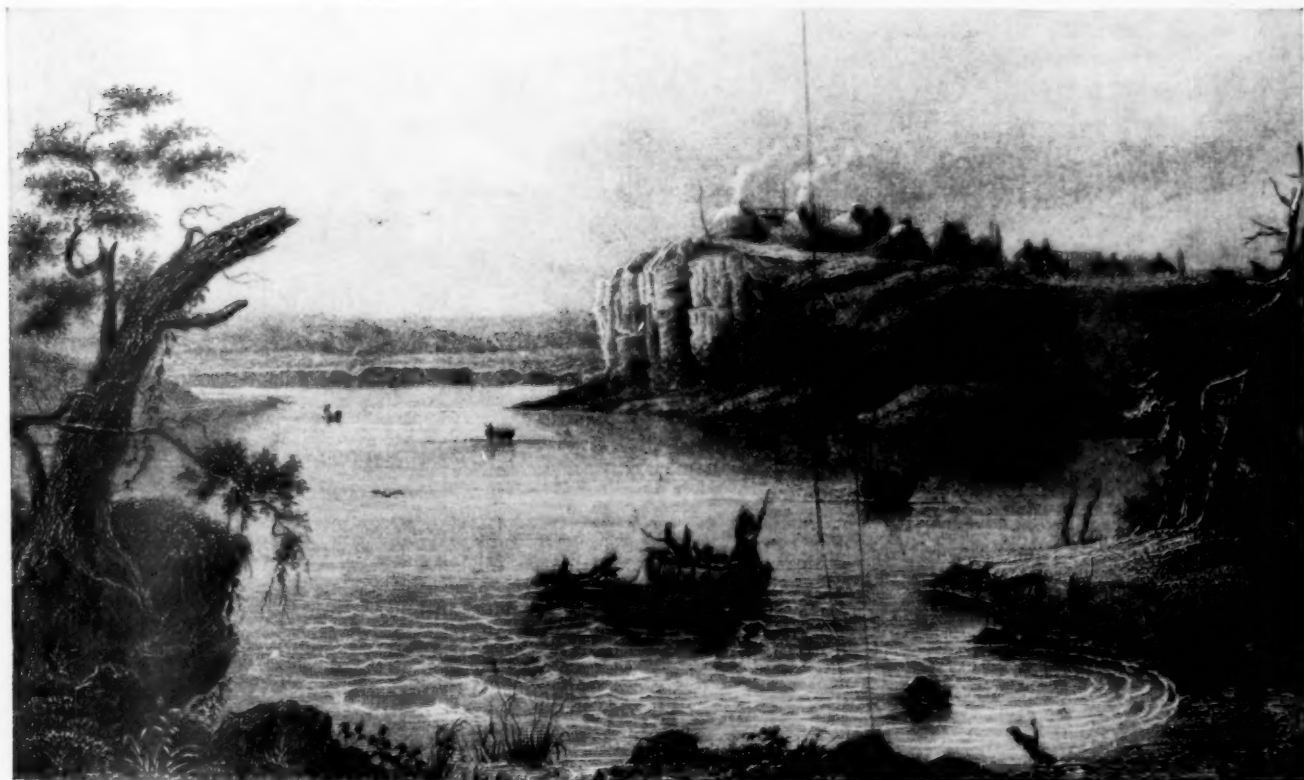


Many river flat-boats or arks were used on the rivers of the country during the first part of the nineteenth century. The view is one of the Susquehanna River. It shows also a passenger canal-boat, with cabin-windows and passengers sitting on the deck.

THE UNITED STATES EARLY IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

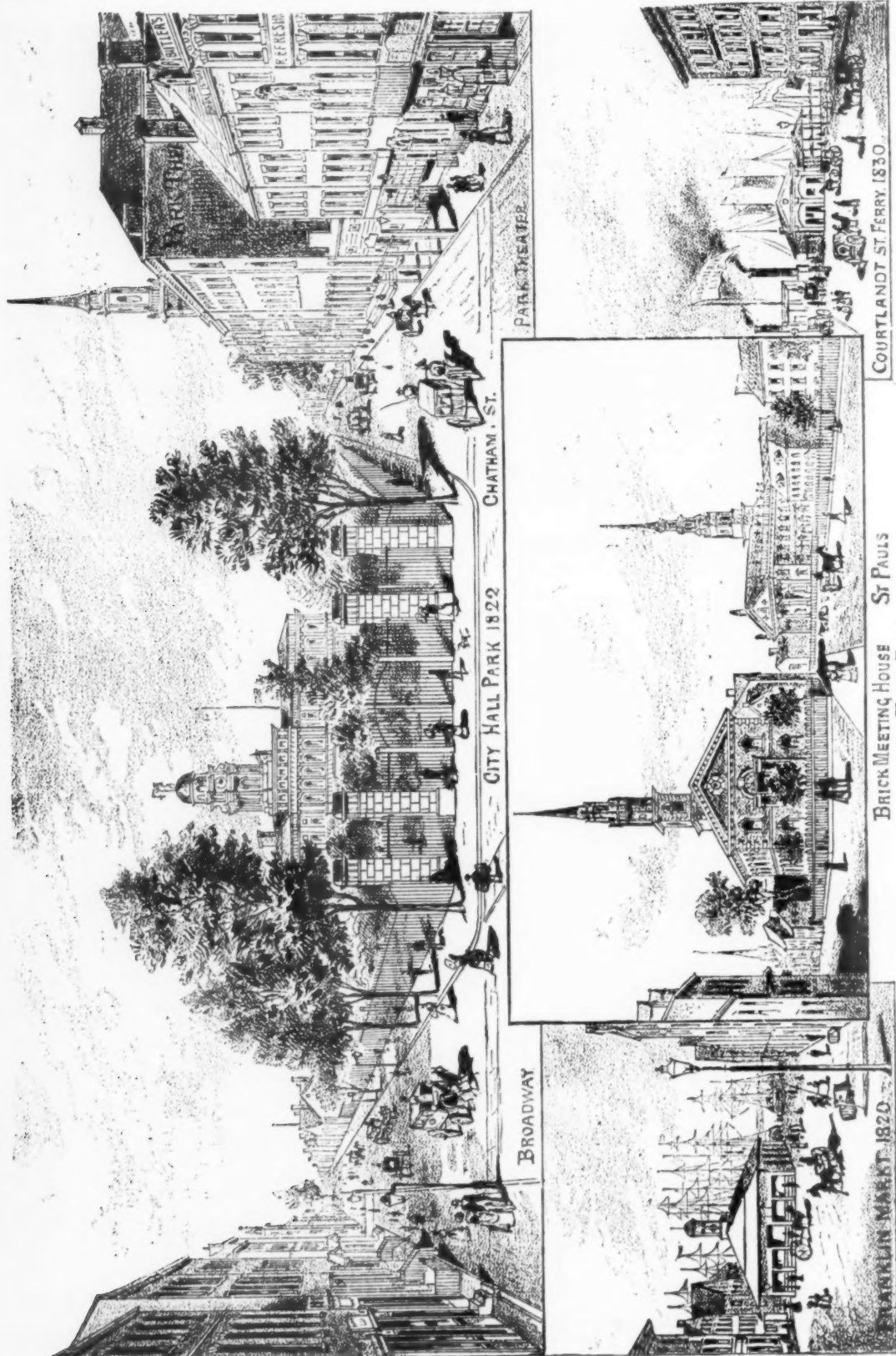


While the foreign slave trade came to an end in 1808, the domestic slave trade continued. Slaves were sold at auction in the chief cities of the South. This view from an English traveler's account of the Southern states, shows slaves being auctioned in New Orleans. Slaves were bought and sold in the nation's capital, Washington, until 1850.



The Lewis and Clark expedition left St. Louis, Missouri, in May, 1804, ascended the Missouri River, wintered among the Mandan Indians in North Dakota, again set out in April, 1805 crossed the Rocky Mountains, reached the Columbia River and saw the Pacific Ocean in November, 1805. They returned to St. Louis in 1806 after a journey of 8,500 miles. The trip resulted in the collection of much information concerning the geography, climate, natural products and animal life of the region explored. Scenes such as this Mandan Indian village greeted the explorers at many points on their memorable journey.

THE UNITED STATES EARLY IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY



By the beginning of the nineteenth century New York had surpassed Philadelphia as the leading commercial port of the country and from this time on, its growth in population, trade and commerce was remarkable.

This is later produced in wax, from which plaster casts are made. From these casts dies are made of an alloy steel. The dies are hand finished and very smooth. Flatware is stamped from silver plate. The blanks are annealed each step of the way to keep them soft. They are cross-rolled, graded, pinch rolled, cut to outline, and stamped. Some objects are placed on wheels and are drawn and spun to maintain uniform thickness and shape. They are also polished to rid the object of spring and waves.

One form of decoration is chasing—a most beautiful, but difficult form of hand decoration. Repousse is a more difficult form of chasing. Engraving is done by cutting designs in the silver with very sharp tools. After engraving the objects are assembled. Then they are wheeled or belted to remove rough edges. Bobbing is done with a polishing compound. Next the objects are washed to remove any polishing material. Inspection is very rigid.

Silver is found in South America, Asia, Europe, Alaska, and particularly western parts of the United States. It is often combined with lead and copper ores. Shafts are driven and drifts from these go to the veins. Huge shovels remove the ore from open pit mines. The ores and concentrates must have the

metal removed from them by smelting. This is later removed to form pure silver by electrolysis. Cyanide enters into the process of removing the pure silver from its companion copper, and gold. The precipitated silver is filtered, melted and run into molds. Silver can be had in sheets, pigs or ingots, and wires.

The film makes it evident that the skilled workmen in the Gorham plant are not very young. This is because it takes years for one to develop into a skilled silversmith.

TEST

1. Annealing a metal means
2. To make a strip of silver desired thickness it is
3. To rid the silver of spring and waves it is
4. Designs hammered into the metal in little dots is called
5. Silver is generally found in ores together with and
6. Pure silver is formed by a process of
7. The crude silver is removed from the ore by
8. The steel die for silver utensils is made from a cast.

Geography in the Civic Education Program

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The problem of training better citizens is not always met by teaching more "civics." This is but an extension of the recognized fact that the way to make a more socially useful engineer is not to teach him more engineering. Not all the concepts necessary in civic education, not even a majority of them, lie within the scope of the study of government and civics. It has long been known that certain concepts can be cultivated only through the study of history, but what has not been generally recognized is that many others can be secured only through the study of human geography. The whole matter of civic education is so important and urgent that it is time that we formulated some total approach to the problem rather than continuing with piece-meal and partial approaches.

It is increasingly evident that the free public schools of the United States deserve public tax support mainly, if not only, because of their service to society in training for citizenship. We have long recognized that a very high degree of literacy is needed in a democracy wherein the governing is done by the people; and that the higher the general

level of education, the more effective that governing is likely to be. Further, we believe that educational opportunities are the right of every American child so that he may render useful service as an economic unit. With these two premises embedded in the minds of our people, we have developed a universal, compulsory, free system of education that has no counterpart in any other part of the world. Even the most casual foreign visitor seldom fails to notice that in any town, in any part of our country, the most substantial and imposing buildings are not only the churches or the offices of government, as in Europe, but the school plants. America is justly proud of its schools. For the most part they are well respected and receive relatively little criticism from those who are taxed for the nation's biggest business.

But during the past two decades, educators themselves have looked inwardly with increasingly critical analysis and examination of their objectives. Their problem has become more and more acute for two reasons: first, America today is faced with a most unique task of mass education wherein both the gifted and the ungifted are expected to complete the

secondary school; and second, abundant evidence on every hand shows that in a complex, difficult, ill-adjusted world our country has many problems, both within and without, that require the schools to produce an increasingly effective citizenry. The result is a housecleaning, a rejudgement of objectives, a reappraisal of subject matter, a re-examination of function, a searching inquiry into the real and fundamental goal of all education. In the process, the various subjects are not only being recombed, but are placed on a measuring stick to justify their very place in the curricula. The vested interests of foreign languages and mathematics are particularly challenged. Although the contest is not yet over, a survey of the course of study of any progressive school reveals increasing emphasis on the social studies. There is but one explanation: the social studies, more than other subjects, seem best conceived to produce effective future citizens in the democracy we are struggling to attain. Their declared task is to give the student adequate knowledges, understandings, habits, and attitudes in the hope that he may with confidence act upon individual convictions in the adult world of which he is soon to become a part.

With such a heavy responsibility both given and assumed by this field of social studies, does the historical approach fully meet the need as an avenue of instruction? It could do so fairly well under the handling of exceptionally discerning teachers possessed of very broad background and experience, but such teachers are rare enough to render any such program untenable. Part of the answer has been to recognize that history is not the sole vehicle, but only one of several which would seem to be necessary. A second part of the answer has been to build a course in what has been termed "civics," usually a required study in the first year of the secondary school. Such a course seeks to make clear the pattern of government in the United States, and to train the citizen-in-the-making toward a proper understanding of his place and responsibility as a functioning unit of society. The emphasis is properly placed upon a study of the problems and complexities of living in the modern local community, for as a voter and a taxpayer, the citizen's first duty is to act intelligently upon matters within his immediate neighborhood.

In the following year of the social studies program, logical development demands a broadening of the student's study from concepts of community and state into those of world citizenship. It is here that civics in turn reveals its inadequacies to meet the total situation. "There are few, if any, purely national problems of any great importance left. Almost every question of national consequence can be answered effectively only in international terms; for political boundaries are not, and can no longer be,

conterminous with economic and social movements and influences, any more than can progress of thought, of literature, of science, or of the fine arts."¹ Increased transportation and communication facilities daily bring all peoples and places of the earth into closer relationships. Events in one part of the world are simultaneously known by every one within hearing of a radio. The end of our hitherto domestic point of view has been hastened by science and its resultant technology; but already we had completed our uninterrupted success in territorial expansion, fought in a world war, become a nation whose livelihood depends upon one-fifth of its goods being sold abroad, and by the Monroe Doctrine assumed responsibility for certain aspects of the affairs of some twenty other nations. Whether we wish it or not we are world citizens living on a continent whose bounding oceans are no longer barriers in space or time.

In totalitarian states the people are asked to accept the unquestioned judgement of those who are esteemed to be wiser than they. In a democracy, where the voters are periodically asked to express an opinion and commit the government to a policy, it is imperative that the individual citizens understand the problems inherent in their relations and intercourse with other countries. Much has been said about the obligations the United States, as a world power and a member of a great family of nations, has to all peoples. But recent events have rudely awakened us to the fact that native common sense and a willingness to deal fairly are not sufficient to grasp the full meaning of questions which involve other powers that like ourselves have patriotic pride and a means to defend their honor.² Our opinions, convictions, and actions are largely determined by reading, conversation, and the radio. Without sufficient information to either verify or disprove, we unconsciously accept as true the attitudes brought to us by these avenues. Lack of knowledge and understanding of foreign peoples is the greatest present menace to our country's foreign policy. The world's daily problems have a geographical and historical setting that require scholarly consideration for which we must look to education to supply the very practical yet technical training.

While this need can be partially filled by other studies, there are basic concepts that can be furnished only by a proper understanding of regional geography. A subject which explains the conditions of life in varying environments gives the student an appreciation of the development and problems of all the peoples of the earth. In its special field history tends

¹ Nicholas Murray Butler, quoted in "World Citizenship and Education," Program of the National Education Association Meeting, June 26, 1938, New York.

² Isaiah Bowman, *The New World*, Preface. (Yonkers, New York: World Book Company, 1921).

to be limited to the consideration of the products of the environment, the man-made systems, institutions, and movements. A broader interpretation of its field includes more than a study of events told in order, it is concerned with the causes for the trend of events. But the explanation of many conditioning factors and causes has its roots deep in the ground, for history does not so much occur on the earth as from the earth; and no aspect of social phenomena can be understood apart from its areal setting or background. "The educational function of geography is to accomplish training in the interpretation of the relations existing between man and his natural environment, the promotion of exact thinking by linking causes with results, and the stimulation of the application of geographical principles to present-day world affairs."³ By omitting much that has formerly passed as geography, such as the study of the world wind system, earth motion, longitude and time, rock structure, the atmosphere, and like subjects, which properly belong in the physical sciences, modern geography has become a science of relationships which studies man's life cast against the background of his environment. In any region there is a causal geographic sequence, the understanding and interpretation of which in a large measure explains the economic, political, and social development of its people. Indeed these latter institutions are only the temporarily crystallized forms which evidence man's adjustment to location, climate, and natural resources. No community can be rightly understood from without. Present cultural patterns or characteristics have been evolved, and modified to meet the survival and developmental needs of the group as these present themselves in a given environment.

The subject of economic or commercial geography is usually given a place in the better high schools of our country. But a study of what man does for a living in certain areas, and in what products he has developed trade, is not the full picture geography is equipped to explain. The human geography of a given region is more properly interested in the permitting factors of the environments which have determined the activities in which man may engage; how he has adapted himself to them and them to him in his way of living, regulation, and attitudes; how he has attempted to overcome their limitations; and what problems he now faces as a result. The key to the explanation of much ill-adjustment between states (that often masquerades under other names) is to be found in a study of natural resources. A nation's desire or need for minerals is frequently not satisfied within its own area. Such a country may remain backward in its development; or, more likely, if these lie in the territory of a weaker nation, they are acquired

peaceably or by force. If they happen to be under the flag of an equally strong power, there is endless conflict. Not many people realize that the Alsace-Lorraine question is and was not a sentimental one, but a struggle to control iron deposits which rank second only to those of our own Lake Superior and Lake Minnesota area. They gave Germany her immense growth and power, which may now be transferred to France. The greatest coal field in Europe—as well as deposits of lead and zinc—lies in upper Silesia. The dispute between Poland and Germany over this region again was not a question of sentiment or nationality. Political boundaries always have been possible causes for conflict.

In the intermediate grades when memory is very active is the natural time for the necessary ground work in place geography. It is also the period when imagination is strongest and descriptive geography has the greatest appeal to the child. This is the time to build sympathy instead of antagonism by showing that all peoples have the common struggle for food and shelter in which they try to utilize the earth's resources. Respect instead of disrespect may be taught by appreciating the skill and adjustment of men in varying circumstances. Understanding instead of prejudice comes from a realization that other peoples are not curious or queer, but do things in a way that is natural for them, that fits the region in which they happen to live.⁴

These attitudes are valuable and should ever be emphasized in social science wherein man and his relationships are the object of study. But on the high school level, the student has reached the age of thought in contrast to memory. He can appreciate the cause and effect relationships in all human activity, and understand the circumstances that compel differences in peoples. Too much of the time while the school is building up a loyalty to the government within, a set of emotional attitudes are developing which condition the whole estimate of people abroad. The young citizen greatly needs to understand international relations and problems on a basis of reason rather than one of emotion. Geography affords a way of analysis which explains actions, characteristics, and attitudes likely otherwise to be misunderstood.

However well the course in civics may train in the problems of the local community, or history may give an account of past movements; the voters' problems of today and tomorrow demand basic knowledges of numerous and diverse sections within his own country, and an understanding of an enlarged pattern of even more varied, complex, and competing regions abroad.

In the attainment of democracy, one of the worst

³ G. T. Renner, "The Geography Curriculum," *Journal of Geography* (November, 1930), 346.

⁴ J. Russel Smith, "Geography and the Higher Citizenship," *Journal of Education* (March 5, 1925), 269.

obstacles is the despair of the individual at ever making his one voice heard among so many millions. The citizen will be more effective if he feels less futile, and is better informed. Indeed, informing him is one of the best ways to make him feel less of a nonentity. Geography offers that body of knowledge and a causal explanation of man and his behavior as conditioned by that greatest of all influences, the physical environment. No preparation for citizenship can assume that these basic concepts are already a part of the pupil's mental equipment. They must be

presented, analyzed, interpreted, and made to function in his thinking. Today our high schools have practically every American youth in the classroom. They should not omit giving each the integrated concepts, method of approach, and unique point of view geography has to contribute. All the social studies must advance together, "throwing more and more light on the great drama of man in its world setting and in its long time reach."⁵

⁵ C. A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Studies* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), p. 9.

An Experimental Evaluation of the Method of Teaching History Backwards

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The question of teaching history backwards, or counter-chronologically, is not a new one, the suggestion running back at least as far as 1793, when Basedow and d'Alembert advocated the teaching of history beginning with the present and moving backward.¹ However, one of the first experimental studies of the relative effectiveness of the method was not reported until 1931. Crawford and Walker conducted an experiment using the group-rotation method, each group using the new method for a period of six weeks before being reversed to the old method.² New type and objective questions furnished the basis for their conclusions which favored the new method. Another interesting study was reported by Dresden in 1935,³ but this study lacks sufficient statistical data to warrant a clear-cut case for this new method of teaching history.

Objections to the idea of teaching history counter-chronologically have been listed by the Binings, who for the most part question the psychological principles involved.⁴ Rugg has stated his objections on the same ground.⁵ On the other hand, Breitwieser suggested as early as 1926, that since current affairs are prominent in the life of our people, these events

should be presented with the principles underlying them, and then the origin of these principles in history should be sought.⁶ This would probably make historical events and moments stand out more clearly.

With this background in mind, together with suggestions by Dr. Erick Selke of the University of North Dakota, an experiment was carried on during the regular school year of 1937-1938 to determine the relative effectiveness of the old method and the new when paired against each other.

For experimental purposes four sections in modern history in the high school at Litchfield, Minnesota, a three-year senior high school with an enrollment of approximately 450 pupils, was used. These four sections were taught by the same teacher, the writer, who previous to this experiment had several years' experience in teaching modern history.

The experimental procedure was applied during the first and second semesters, and a careful attempt was made to control all non-experimental factors as much as possible. One hundred and thirty-two members of the sophomore class were the subjects of this experiment, ten others being dropped because of prolonged absence from school. No formal courses have been offered in either ancient or medieval history; so none of the pupils had an advantage in background material.

The parallel-group technique was used, the control group consisting of the first and sixth-hour classes, while the experimental group was composed of the second and fifth-hour classes. All class assignments were made without thought of the experiment, but

¹ Edgar Dawson (Ed.), *Teaching the Social Studies* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928), pp. 231-234.

² C. C. Crawford and W. S. Walker, "An Experiment in Teaching History Backward," *Historical Outlook*, XXII (December, 1931), 395-397.

³ Katherine W. Dresden, "Teaching History Backwards," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXVII (January, 1936), 37-43.

⁴ A. C. and D. H. Bining, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935), pp. 278-279.

⁵ Harold Rugg, *Teachers Guide for an Introduction to Problems of American Culture* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1932), p. 48.

⁶ J. V. Breitwieser, *Psychological Education* (New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1926), pp. 65, 133.

an attempt was made by the principal to equalize the size of classes.

A total of twenty-eight boys and thirty-eight girls

TABLE 1
THE NUMBER OF PUPILS IN EACH CLASS
USED IN THE EXPERIMENT

Periods	Hours	Class Size	Number of Pupils
1	9-10	33	32
2	10-11	37	35
5	2-3	35	31
6	3-4	37	34
Total		142	132

was used in the control group, and thirty-two boys and thirty-four girls in the counter-chronological group.

Each pupil in all sections was provided with the basic text used in the course, namely, Hayes and Moon, *Modern History*.⁷ The chief supplementary text available to all students during the study period in the classroom was Carl Becker, *Modern History*.⁸ About seventy-five standard reference books were also available. The same classroom was used by all sections, together with maps, bulletin boards, blackboard space, and reference books.

Beginning with the first assignment on the opening day of school in September, 1937, the classes in modern history were started on two different paths of studying history. Textbook assignments were used in both cases, regular assignments being given in all classes, plus additional outside reading. No workbooks were used; instead a brief digest of the material to be covered was written on the blackboard and copied by the students, except when "essentials-sheets" were given them.

The group studying in the regular chronological order started in with Chapter I, which gave the background material to the course. Those in the group studying by the counter-chronological method started in with Chapter XXX in the same text, this chapter being the last in the book and containing a résumé of the world economic crisis up to the publication date, 1936. Assignments then proceeded in a regular succession of chapters for the groups studying in the regular order, while the experimental groups proceeded in a reverse order through the text by studying the preceding chapter after completion of the first assignment. Thus the control group studied the text in the order of Chapters I, II, III, IV, etc., while the experimental group studied in order of Chapters XXX, XXIX, XXVIII, XXVII, etc.

The school uses the supervised study plan, and this was generally followed in all sections of the course in

modern history. Using the chapters as short units, from three to six days of study and recitation (discussion) were devoted to each. Preceding each assignment a preview of materials to be covered and an introduction to the assignment was given by the instructor. The study of the unit was concluded by written tests, oral discussions and reports, or both. Instructions on how to study and the methods of supervised study were practically identical in all sections. The order of presentation was the same, roughly being: presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation.

One day in each week (Monday) was used by all sections for the study of contemporary affairs. *The American Observer* furnished a fairly comprehensive résumé of world affairs and news.⁹ All sections studied and commented upon their reading with no variance from the method used in any class, pupil-interest determining the nature of the discussion.

In conducting the experiment, achievement in both groups was measured by means of objective tests, both standardized and new-type tests being utilized. All the standardized tests could be administered and completed within one hour, except the comprehensive final examination which took two hours.

TABLE 2
THE TYPE OF TESTS USED AND TIME
OF ADMINISTERING THEM¹⁰

Tests	Date Given
Coöperative Modern History Test Form N	Jan. 20, 1938
Coöperative Modern History Test Form O	May 25, 1938
Revised Version of the Minnesota State Board Examination for 1936	April 20, 1938
Revised Version of the Minnesota State Board Examination for 1935	May 2, 1938
Comprehensive Final Examination based on State Board Examinations for 1935 and 1936	May 31, 1938
American Observer Test, First Semester, 1938	Jan. 21, 1938
American Observer Test, Second Semester, 1938	May 19, 1938
Iowa Every Pupil Test in Contemporary Affairs, 1938	May 9, 1938

On the basis of intelligence quotients and chronological age, the two groups were fairly matched. The differences for all practical purposes, were statistically insignificant. Since an elaboration of the statistical data involved in the various tests, together with comments on each test, is impossible in these pages, the interested reader is referred to a more detailed report in the University of North Dakota

⁹ Civic Education Service, Washington, D.C.

¹⁰ Names of Publishers' tests used: Coöperative Modern European History Test, Revised Series. Forms N and O, Coöperative Test Service, New York City, 1937 and 1938. Minnesota State Board Examinations in Modern History for 1935 and 1936, State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota. (Tests revised by writer.) *American Observer* Semester Tests, Vol. VII, Nos. 17 and 34, 1938. The 1938 Iowa Every Pupil Test in Understanding of Contemporary Affairs, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, 1938.

⁷ C. J. H. Hayes and P. T. Moon, *Modern History* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936).

⁸ Carl L. Becker, *Modern History* (New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1935).

Library.¹¹ The experimental co-efficient, designed by McCall,¹² was used to state probability in terms of *chance* that the true difference is above or below zero.

TABLE 3
STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF THE SCORES OF THE STUDENTS USED IN THE EXPERIMENT

	Experi- mental Group	Control Group	Differ- ence Between Means	Experi- mental Coefficient	No. of Chances to 1
Intelligence Tests					
Terman Group and Kuhlmann-Anderson	103.09	102.68	.41		
Chronological Age	186.63	185.09	1.54		
History Tests Used					
1. Form N	41.85	42.58	-.73	.50	11.
2. Form O	54.17	51.43	2.74	.99	348.
3. State Board, 1936	35.95	30.81	5.14	.83	100.5
4. State Board, 1935	39.77	32.82	6.95	1.13	1356.
5. Comprehensive	102.52	92.67	9.85	.51	11.9
Contemporary Affairs					
6. Iowa Every Pupil	41.5	38.22	3.28	.78	67.6
7. Observer, First	36.23	33.01	3.22	.73	49.1
8. Observer, Second	39.33	35.66	3.67	.73	49.1

Except for Form N of the Coöperative Test in modern history which was given at the end of the first semester, the experimental factor as it was applied by the writer to this particular group of sophomores taking their first course in modern history proves with fair statistical significance that the counter-chronological method (type used) brought better results on both modern history tests and contemporary affairs tests.

As a result of this experiment there are certain *inferences* (not conclusions), as well as suggestions, that can be drawn:

1. Both methods require about the same amount of time to cover the same period of time when the

¹¹ Harold S. Grande, "An Experimental Evaluation of the Counter-Chronological Method of Teaching History," Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of North Dakota, 1938.

¹² W. A. McCall, *How to Experiment in Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923), p. 155.

textbook method is used, as in this experiment. However, there is a decided rush to complete the text, whichever method is used.

2. Since the teaching and learning of contemporary affairs have become increasingly important in the last decade, the counter-chronological method helps to "tie" the subject material together with the current situation a bit more effectively, still preserving the idea of "continuity."

3. This is the third report, within the writer's knowledge, to show evidence supporting the idea of teaching history backwards or counter-chronologically, and additional experiments should be made using different techniques than the ones described.

4. The writing of a modern history textbook for use on the high school level incorporating the idea of a counter-chronological treatment of history would facilitate further experiments in this field of study by presenting representative and outstanding periods and ages, and tracing back to causal relationships. It should be written with the idea of enlarging our knowledge of past history, as well as understanding the present. The writer is fully aware that many of the latest textbooks in modern and world history treat the subject in topical, unit, and different arrangements of materials than the strict chronological treatment accorded in the past.

In concluding this report the writer would encourage any individual who is in search of an experiment to improve his work, not to overlook the possibilities in the subject of teaching history backwards. For the "old-timer" teaching history, the counter-chronological method offers a different approach which is really stimulating. Personally, however, the writer does not favor the strict textbook method, but in order to keep the methods within bounds, this was the most logical approach to get fair results for either method. More experimentation must follow.

News and Comment

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SOCIALIZING EDUCATION

The number of educators who emphasize the importance of the social aspects and social consequences of education is becoming so large that it indicates one of the primary phases of the educational revolution now under way. In this department, month by month, references have been made to addresses and articles on the social aspects of education, particularly for a democratic society, now that democracies seem to have been thrown on the defensive by the dictator

states. In nearly every educational journal today someone is re-examining the implications of educational practices and principles for society as a whole. One no longer teaches history or physics or algebra. Teacher training in subject matter and in methods for presenting it, predominant a generation ago, is now condemned as inadequate for the secondary school. Having become the school of the whole people, the high school must devote itself primarily to fitting the whole citizenry for worthy participation in a dem-

ocratic society. Accordingly, from platforms and periodicals on all sides, teachers are being admonished to gear activities to actual community living, to use the democratic method of discussion, to work in areas of experience, and the like. One recalls the reports of the Educational Policies Commission, the Commission on the Social Studies, and similar committees of national and state organizations.

In the March issue of *Secondary Education*, the bulletin of the Department of Secondary Education of the N.E.A., several articles deal with this subject. Leonard S. Kenworthy described the procedures and purposes pursued in the Friends Central School of Philadelphia for "Developing Social Sensitivity." Under the title, "The General Welfare," appeared the second of the six radio scripts which were broadcast last fall over the Red network of the National Broadcasting Company in the series on "Schools of Democracy." This script is a plea for building intelligent, participating citizenry rather than for educating youth for success in their own personal careers. Wayne Alvord, writing on "What Good is History?" stresses the contributions offered by history to the process of socializing pupils.

Along similar lines are Percy E. Davidson's article on "The Social Task of Education," Macomber and Dutton's "Eugene's Core Curriculum," and Nutter and Stone's "Florida Program for Curriculum Improvement," in the *Curriculum Journal* for March. Further references to the question of socializing education will be noted below.

COMMISSION ON TEACHER EDUCATION

A little over a year ago the American Council on Education set up a Commission on Teacher Education to work on the problem of improving teaching in the country's schools. Following the receipt of a large grant of money from the General Education Board, the director of the Commission, Karl W. Bigelow, has announced the first project to be pursued. Thirty school systems and colleges throughout the nation will cooperate in gathering and reporting evidence upon ways to improve teaching. The Commission itself will act as a coordinating agency, providing a clearing house for information concerning successful practices and promising experiments. It also will encourage those working with teachers to make complete use of the best that is known in teacher education, including experimenting with new and likely hypotheses. The Commission will offer opportunities for sharing experiences and securing expert counsel and will promote means for evaluating programs. It is expected to enlist the active interest and aid not only of teacher-training institutions but also of school systems, educational associations, and governmental departments of education. It is hoped, as a result of the work of the Commission, that much practical help

will be given to the improvement of the quality of teaching and of teacher training.

TEACHER TRAINING

In *The School Review* for March, Paul R. Pierce asks, "Can Teachers Be Trained for New Curriculums?" After more than eight years of personal experience with new curriculums in elementary and secondary schools, he asks why classroom practices are not more in accord with modern educational theory, and he suggests that evidence indicates that teachers are not trained in the professional schools to teach according to such theory. At least eight teaching practices, it seems to him, are indispensable if the new-type curriculum is to be made effective:

1. Learning units are large, including related fields of learning, the skills necessary for the learning unit, and materials drawn from significant areas of living.
2. Procedures are cooperative, responsibilities being shared by both pupils and teachers. Pupils as well as teachers must understand the purposes, and learning should be carried over into living, in school and out.
3. Community materials become part and parcel of school activity.
4. Field trips are used to study at first hand the life of the community, including specialized aspects of its activities.
5. Cooperation with the home and other agencies is promoted as part of the educational process.
6. Guidance is given to teach the discriminating use of such means for spreading news as the radio, the movies, and newspapers, and to teach health activities and worthy recreation.
7. In addition to reading and writing, as many ways of learning are employed as individual aptitudes require, such as visual aids, making things, and talks and discussions.
8. Pupil progress in general education is evaluated by improved methods for determining the learning which is translated into activities of effective everyday living.

Mr. Pierce suggests that teachers should be trained to be social minded and not subject minded. Areas of living should be the matter of direct study, and all knowledge relevant to the area should be used in its study. Prospective teachers and their instructors should plan their activities together and make wide use of the laboratory method, employing the community resources, such devices as the radio and the movies, as well as the apparatus of the classroom. Moreover, prospective teachers should be taught how to measure the results of their learning in order to practice the evaluation of procedures.

Quite commonly, Mr. Pierce says, prospective teachers are told about theories and are given illustrations of them, but are not all given practice in their use. The few weeks of practice teaching at the end of the course does not assure the application of the theories and methods in the classroom in a way that results in their really being learned. Too often, professional instruction in new methods is given by people who never experienced them as students or used them as teachers. It would seem desirable to borrow from the schools of law and medicine and provide teachers with a set of principles, relatively few in number, which are basic to each significant educational area, and rooted in research, practice, and the best thought of the day. Learning situations then should be analyzed and practices formulated and evaluated in the light of these principles. Beginning teachers, so taught, gain confidence in theory and skill in planning and executing classroom procedures. But this can be done only if classrooms of children are provided.

Every prospective teacher should serve an internship in the newer practices, preferably in a public school. His professors should themselves be teachers and administrators there, at least for part of each year, and should be the demonstrators of theory in action. As in medicine, the professor is also the skilled practitioner, and the novice learns under him, seeing the expert practicing his theory in a life situation.

Because it is desirable to enlist parents as participants in education and to use the whole community as a school laboratory, prospective teachers must receive some of the training of social workers, including how to visit homes, how to study out-of-school conditions which affect the school child, and how to foster an entente cordiale between the school and the home and other social agencies. Training is also necessary in how to conduct field trips, in making community surveys, and in dealing with other agencies such as health and welfare.

It is evident that competence in the high school means much more than the completeness of a teacher's knowledge of a subject. High school teachers are teachers in what is called general education. While they need knowledge of technical subject matter, they need also a wide professional training which will make them competent to deal with so-called problem children, with guidance problems, with ways and means for democratizing school life, with ways for making children good parents and responsible citizens, and with kindred matters.

In conclusion, Mr. Pierce points out what part the school principal must play in teacher training. Three fields of activity seem especially pertinent: in-service training; the development of new practices in selected curriculum areas; and making the local school the chief unit for curriculum development. "If practices

are related to basic principles, if clinical records are accurately kept, if outcomes are carefully analyzed and evaluated and the established results are published, local teaching staffs will prove capable, not only of using new curriculums but even of sharing with pioneer thinkers and research workers in the development of new curriculum principles and procedures."

THE NATIONAL DEFENSE

Current periodicals are filled with discussions of the national defense if a major war breaks out. The March issue of *The Congressional Digest* took for its topic of the month, "Congress Considers National Defense." It outlined both the New Deal and the Republican programs for defense and presented the origin and text of the Monroe Doctrine and the Neutrality Act of 1937 and the proposed amendments of Senators Thomas and Nye. Senators, representatives, and other prominent persons discussed, pro and con, the question, "Should America's Defense Frontier Extend Beyond the American Continents?"

Phases of the subject were examined in the three leading articles of the April number of *Harper's Magazine*, under the heading, "America and the World Crisis." The noted publicist, Oswald Garrison Villard, argues that our oceans make the serious invasion of this country impossible, and urges that we see the magnitude of the defense problem in its proper size. He calls upon the nation to define its defense aims specifically and to unify its divided military establishments. In a powerful article called "Wanted: A Sane Defense Policy," C. Hartley Grattan seconds Mr. Villard's proposal that a reasonable, definite, not too expensive defense policy be adopted in place of the wild talk and no less wild demands for armament. The defense of democracy should begin at home. "No More Excursions!" was the lesson of the World War. What this country now needs is a program that shall guarantee that "No American shall ever again be sent to fight and die on the continent of Europe." Mrs. Avis D. Carlson, under the title "Courage for To-morrow," declares that undefined fears make the country jittery and may cause dangerous actions. It is high time that attitudes and disciplines were encouraged which will restore a balanced sanity in thought, purpose, and action.

In *Common Sense* for March, Bertrand Russell, Harry Elmer Barnes, John T. Flynn, John Dewey, Max Lerner, Lewis Mumford, and Charles A. Beard take part in a symposium on the question, "If War Comes, Shall We Participate or Be Neutral?" Although divided upon the policy of furthering democracy by participation or by neutrality, they agree that the paramount issue is the safety of democracy and not the safety of certain European nations and their possessions. The fact that leading thinkers such

as these men disagree on the question of what we should do "If War Comes" throws into bold relief the seriousness of a problem which America may have to face shortly.

In *Events* for March, Professor Denna F. Fleming, in the leading article on "Our Choice in Foreign Policy," reviews the recent events in our foreign relations, the conflicting views and the reasons for our vacillating policy, and poses the choice which America must make. The noted British thinker, Alfred N. Whitehead, now at Harvard University, studies the consequences of an isolation policy by a powerful nation today, in a long article in the March issue of *The Atlantic Monthly* ("An Appeal to Sanity"). A summary of the whole situation is given by Eliot Janeway in *The Nation*, in the series of articles which has been appearing in occasional issues since January 28 on the subject of "America in the Post-Munich World." *The Journal of Educational Sociology* for March deals with the topic "Which Way Peace Education?" The discussion includes such matters as the status of pacifism today, youth and peace, the moving picture as an agency for peace or war, and peace and intercultural education.

SIDELIGHTS FROM CURRENT HISTORY

A vast number of articles could be listed which shed further light on the question of America's foreign relations. A few of them can be given here as examples. Shandon V. Hastings ("Rumania's Uneasy Seat") and Stoyan Pribichevich ("Albania: Key to the Adriatic"), in the March number of *Current History*, describes the problems facing Balkan states under the pressure of the Rome Berlin axis and in the presence of the great slav state of Russia. Both give a sort of anecdotal account of affairs, imparting a reality to regions which pupils are likely to view merely as small parts of the subject of modern history.

In the same magazine Stuart Lillico, who is personally well acquainted with the East, reviews the war in China ("Third Phase in China") and examines the Japanese objectives at the present time. Carleton Beals, one of our leading authorities on Latin America, contributes the first of a series on our southern neighbors, entitled "Colombia: Again the Good Neighbor." After going Left and then Right, Colombia has turned to the middle of the road under President Santos and "is safely—and to all appearances, quite happily—back in the Caribbean orbit of American influence." He sketches the recent political and economic history of Colombia and indicates the ways in which her antagonism to the United States has been overcome since the "Rape of Panama," even in the face of German and Japanese activities.

In the March issue of *Fortune* appears the fifth in the series of articles on South American republics—

"Venezuela." Like its predecessors, this article was illustrated with fine photographs and a map. All phases of Venezuelan life are presented, and like a travelogue, it gives a sense of familiarity with the region as if one had been there.

In *Current History* for March, Lewis Mumford, as a moderate leftist, attacks fascism as a barbarian enemy of the American democratic heritage ("America at Armageddon"). Six barbaric evidences of fascism in his opinion, are (1) glorification of war; (2) contempt for the physically weak; (3) contempt for science and objectivity; (4) hatred of democracy; (5) hatred of civilization; and (6) delight in physical cruelty. Mr. Mumford, aroused and hating this menace to democracy, minces no words in painting the evil characteristics of the totalitarian state. He believes we need to "substitute coöperative processes for the parasitic and predatory ones that have so long dominated machine industry and its subsidiary occupations." He contrasts the characteristics of democracy with those of that kind of business and concludes that, with all its faults, democracy is better than fascism of the most efficient kind.

BUSINESS AND GOVERNMENT

Another of *Fortune's* editorials on "Business and Government" appears in the March number. Its thesis is that business must improve its public relations, if it wants to survive. Another feature which appears in this issue and which promises to attract much attention is the first of a series under the title, "The First *Fortune* Round Table." It really is a symposium on "The Effects of Government Spending Upon Private Enterprise," participated in by eleven business men, economists, engineers, and publicists. Raymond Leslie Buell acts as editor of the Round Table. Among those who take part in this first discussion are Professor Slichter of Harvard University, David Cushman Coyle, Judge Fortson of Atlanta, Chester I. Barnard of Bell Telephone, and Edgar W. Smith of General Motors. Inevitably, the group is not in agreement, but their views merit study. Certain facts stand out. With ten million still unemployed, little new capital is being invested and few new industries are being created. It is difficult to determine whether government spending promotes economic recovery or is an obstacle to it. Government spending seems most helpful if it creates more productive opportunity rather than merely an increase in purchasing power. Government must revive the confidence of business, but social and economic reforms should not be undone. Public spending should be used to counterbalance the business cycle. But all of this should not prevent the balancing of the budget periodically, and the reduction of the total public debt.

An interesting sidelight on this discussion is the article on "The Income Tax Unit" in the March issue

of *Current History* by one of its associate editors, Norman Cousins. He stresses the pains taken by the government to check up on the accuracy of returns and to run down evaders and falsifiers. But he emphasizes especially the desire of the government to show every consideration to the citizen in collecting the taxes and in the treatment of tax evaders.

AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP

"What Makes an American?" is the question asked in the leading article of *The Atlantic Monthly* for March. The author, Raoul de Roussy de Sales, American on his mother's side, is familiar with both France and the United States, but he gives his answer from the European standpoint. On that account his observations prove arresting to us who are accustomed to see ourselves only through our own eyes. A professional writer and correspondent, Mr. de Sales has provided high-school youths with an essay which they will enjoy and which will give them a very unusual glimpse of themselves.

Louis Adamic's intimate description of the procedures by which immigrants become Americans, which he called "The Making of Americans" (*Current History* for March), will be welcomed by teachers of civics. Mr. Adamic not only describes the process in detail but takes his readers into the court room and shows them the undignified, hurried, mumbled ceremony which too often is naturalization. He quotes a friend who witnessed the procedure in an eastern city: "To most of these people the attainment of American citizenship was a fine and glorious dream that took years to reach fulfilment. And to have that dream come to its final realization in this banal, dismal, ill-tempered display of bad manners, squalor and boredom!" The blame, Mr. Adamic makes clear, rests upon no person and upon no one governmental agency. Nor would most naturalization courts outrage his friend's sense of fitness. "After witnessing naturalization proceedings or ceremonies lately in several courts, and comparing notes with people in various parts of the country who share my interest, I can say that of these 2,000 courts [1,800 state courts and 200 federal courts] a few score are nearly everything one can desire with respect to making naturalization dignified. About a thousand, including some of the federal courts which turn out the highest number of new citizens, are so-so—at best marked by a cold business-like efficiency. The rest swing somewhere between 'pretty bad' and 'awful.'" Mr. Adamic argues for uniformity in procedures and interpretation of the laws under which aliens are admitted to citizenship, and for a dignified ceremony in keeping with the importance of the occasion.

COMMUNITY RESOURCES AND CLASSROOMS

Galeta M. Kaar, a teacher in Hamilton Branch of

Lake View High School, Chicago, reports on three years of work in an integrated program for ninth grade pupils, in *Educational Method* for February ("Utilizing Community Resources in an Integrated Program"). The project emphasizes the study of the community, and teachers and pupils together planned what was to be done. The article outlines the project, the reading materials used, trips and other means employed, and the classroom activities, largely of the laboratory type. In place of the usual report cards, descriptive letters were sent to parents emphasizing pupil success rather than failure.

The usual forty-five-minute periods were altered to provide two ninety-minute periods each day, and each student met two teachers daily, and not five as under the old schedule. Teachers found it necessary to disregard subject-matter boundaries, but textbooks as well as all other sources of information were drawn upon in the pursuit of the project. The program revealed considerable remedial power, lending itself well to the handling of problem children. This fact was of much interest because the ninth graders who shared in the project were for the most part children from homes recently foreign, whose families were poor and more interested in getting children to go to work. Their parents for the most part had not gone beyond the grammar grades themselves, and their neighborhood was definitely on the down grade. This experiment, one of a kind being tried in increasing numbers, is worth studying.

The "Education Use of Resources" was the topic for the March number of *Progressive Education*. This issue gives many suggestions about procedures for school use in the study of the question of the conservation of physical and cultural resources, local and national, urban and rural, in the classroom, by way of film and radio, by school trips, and through printed materials. In the March issue of *Fortune* there is a very interesting illustrated article on "Fire." Facts, figures, and charts show what havoc fire causes, to both life and property. Both the causes of fire and the means for its prevention are outlined. Civics classes will profit from this article which is designed for older readers.

THE YALE REVIEW

As usual, the spring (March) issue of *The Yale Review* contains many articles of value to teachers. William Allen White, the great American editor, analyzes the farm problem with which the nation now struggles ("The Farmer's Votes and Problems"). Mr. White uncovered the complex of problems hidden under the label "Farm Problem," and shows the impossibility of solving them in any brief space of time, particularly since the needs of the various farming sections of the country differ and the differences are antagonistic. This survey will be found illuminating by students of American problems.

Adolph A. Berle, Jr., who attended the Lima Conference as an Assistant Secretary of State, reviews the consequences of that meeting ("After Lima"). He points out the place of the conference in the series of Pan-American conferences and its contribution to the newer interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine. He draws particular attention to the positive accomplishments at Lima. In view of the recent drive to foster solidarity among the republics of the Western Hemisphere, Professor Berle's analysis is enlightening.

Julian Huxley, the noted British biologist, contributes a fine, inspiring essay on "The Uniqueness of Man." It is both an interpretation of what progress means in evolution, and a re-statement of the attributes of mankind which make the species unique among living creatures. For teachers especially, this essay is of great worth.

Professor C. E. A. Winslow of Yale University, an expert on public health, discusses the growing movement for socializing medicine in this country. His article on "Medical Care for the Nation" will greatly enrich the understanding of students of the problem. Students of history will welcome Professor Henry E. Allen's appraisal of "The Achievements of Ataturk." Professor Allen has had considerable first-hand contact with the Near East. Thanks to Ataturk, Turkey now seems definitely committed to the program of Westernization.

CONSTITUTIONAL DOCUMENTS

In the Magna Carta Hall at the World's Fair in New York, there will be displayed the Lincoln Cathedral copy of Magna Carta and facsimiles of the more important constitutional documents of English history. In Great Britain, The Historical Association issues a series of such documents including not only Magna Carta, but also "The Coronation Charter of Henry I," "The Petition of Right," the "Habeas Corpus Act," "The Bill of Rights," and "The Act of Settlement" of 1701. Each document is prefaced by an explanatory statement, and is further clarified by headings in the body of the text. These documents are inexpensive. Those who visit the World's Fair in New York may there secure further information, or inquiries may be addressed to G. Bell and Sons, Ltd., 6 Portugal Street, London, W.C. 2, who publish the documents for The Historical Association.

FILMS

The Fisher Body Division of General Motors recently released a two-reel picture of the history of transportation—*This Moving World*. Beginning with the discovery of the wheel, the film unfolds the story of transportation up to the modern streamlined train and trans-oceanic liner. Available in 16 mm. and 35 mm. sound film, this picture may be secured at the

cost only of transportation charges, from the company at Detroit, Michigan.

Audio-Film Libraries (661 Bloomfield Avenue, Bloomfield, New Jersey), has available for rental a 17-minute film on the *Life of Theodore Roosevelt*. Among the highlights of his career which are portrayed are his activities in New York, his career as a soldier, the building of the Panama Canal, his conservation policy, and the modernizing of the navy.

Pictorial Film Library (130 W. 46 Street, New York City) has a three-reel, 16 mm. film showing *Life in a Benedictine Monastery*. Produced in France, with English titles, the film shows the life of a monk as it has been going on for centuries: the novitiate, the prayers, and the other manifold activities of monastic life.

The International Film Bureau has several films which are useful for classes in history. Among them are a twenty-minute, 16 mm. film on the *Medieval Village* which treats of the manorial system; a twenty-two-minute, 16 mm. film on the *Expansion of the United States* which covers the period from 1783 to 1853; an eleven-minute, 16 mm. film on the *Expansion of Germany, 1870-1914*, in which the economic treatment is by R. K. Gooch; and a sixty-five-minute film, both 16 mm. and 35 mm., called *Tsar to Lenin*, which covers the period from 1912 to 1922. The material is drawn largely from newsreels and other films, and shows important European and American statesmen. Full details may be secured from the company, at 59 E. Van Buren Street, Chicago, Illinois.

MEETINGS

The twenty-sixth annual meeting of Schoolmen's Week was held at the University of Pennsylvania, March 22-25. The sessions were joint meetings with the Southeastern Convention District of the Pennsylvania State Education Association. More than a hundred group meetings were called, as well as general sessions, psychological clinics, and demonstration lessons. Several hundred men and women prominent in educational and public affairs throughout the nation led the discussions which were attended by more than five thousand persons interested in education. In view of Pennsylvania's problems of educational finance, considerable attention was given to that question.

Two group meetings were held for teachers of the social studies, on the topic of "Making Social Studies Function in a Democracy." Professor Howard E. Wilson of Harvard University and Principal Leonard Covello of the Benjamin Franklin High School of New York City led in the discussion at the first meeting, which was concerned primarily with the question of how to make the social studies function in a democratic community, particularly from the standpoint of the secondary school. At the second meeting, the

results were presented of the winter's meetings of the committee in the Southeastern Convention District to work out objectives and procedures for the high-school curriculum for the non-college student. Dr. Ray Wallick of Upper Darby High School and Miss Mary Williamson of the Holmes Junior High School of Philadelphia spoke for the committee. This committee is one of nine state regional committees which are coöperating on the problem of the courses in social studies for the non-academic or non-college pupil. Similar committees are at work upon all phases of the secondary school curriculum for such students, under the supervision of the Pennsylvania Branch of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the N.E.A., which initiated the study. The problem became acute in Pennsylvania when the legislature in 1937 enacted a measure requiring all pupils who have not graduated to remain in the secondary schools until they reach eighteen years of age. This act goes into effect in September, 1939. It is expected that the preliminary draft of this study will be completed this spring.

SAN FRANCISCO, JULY 3-6, 1939

The wheels are turning for the ninth annual convention of student leaders and faculty advisers of school government organizations conducted jointly by the National Association of Student Officers and the National Conference on Student Participation to be held in San Francisco, July, 3-6, 1939. This convention, held as an adjunct of the summer session of the National Education Association, is an event around which many student leaders and faculty advisers plan their vacation activities each year.

The convention is the climax of the year's activities in student participation. Usually it is attended by about 500 student leaders and 250 faculty advisers who represent all sections of the United States. Associations from approximately half of the states and territories have sent delegates to the convention regularly for the past nine years. It was during the session of the National Education Association held in California in 1930 that the National Association of Student Officers had its beginning. Dr. Willis A. Sutton of Atlanta, Georgia, then president of the N.E.A. invited outstanding student leaders from all parts of the country to participate in the 1930 session and to express their opinions on many matters regarding

educational and civic affairs. The ingenuity and resourcefulness of these students resulted in the organization of the National Association of Student Officers under the guidance of the National Education Association with Dr. Sutton as its active adviser. As several matters of great importance are to be featured on the 1939 program, it promises to become an important milestone in the history of the organization and in the development of effective student government.

The program is being planned with the purpose of providing opportunity for the practice of, rather than the preaching about democracy. Delegates, selected democratically by schools and associations composed of several schools, will discuss and make important decisions concerning the future work of the organizations. Anyone who is interested may attend the convention. Sessions devoted to the business affairs of the two organizations are held separately, and the identity of each organization is maintained in all business transactions.

The students who will take part on the program are among the outstanding leaders from the student bodies of American secondary schools. Some of the educators who will appear on the program are: John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education; Willard E. Givens, Executive Secretary of the National Education Association; Ray Lyman Wilbur, President of Stanford University; and Robert Gordon Sproul, President of the University of California. A few attractions on the program not mentioned include social activities, the annual luncheon, conferences for leaders, excursions, and attendance at the Golden Gate International Exposition.

The following persons are in direct charge of planning and arrangements for the convention: John L. Murray, president of the National Association of Student Officers, Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, New York; Adeline M. Smith, president of the National Conference on Student Participation, Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights, Illinois; Edward Goldman, James Lick Junior High School, San Francisco, and Charles A. Simonds, Civic Auditorium, San Francisco, the convention co-chairmen; and C. C. Harvey, 5732 Harper Ave., Chicago, Illinois, the convention executive secretary. A copy of the program, travel information, rooming facilities available for the convention, estimated cost, etc., may be secured by writing to one of the above persons.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by J. IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

The Rise of New York Port (1815-1860). By Robert Greenhalgh Albion, with the collaboration of Jennie Barnes Pope. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. xiv, 485. Illustrated. \$3.75.

This study covering the middle period of the development of the port of New York is a notable addition to the economic history of the United States. The author is well qualified for the task because of a vital interest in the subject of ships and commerce, and also because of the patient and careful research which includes much material heretofore untouched. The purpose in undertaking this task is best expressed by his own statement: "Plenty of books tell how the old ships sailed; too few tell why they sailed."

After a preliminary survey, the author proceeds to explain clearly why New York became the chief port of America. He shows how, as soon as the war of 1812 was over, the city made itself the center of the import trade of the nation, how it developed the triangular trade whereby it profited from the southern cotton shipments, how it competed successfully for the coastwise commerce, how it established control of the main route of export from the west, and how it extended its influence into the far corners of the earth. Along with this there are significant descriptions of the geographical factors which aided the development of New York as a harbor, of the official agencies which controlled port traffic, of important merchants, of the organization of the merchantile and shipbuilding industries, of the early lines of passenger traffic, and of the status of rival ports.

Along with facts about the Caribbean trade, ship subsidies, the use of steam for ocean transportation, the human interest side of the story is also preserved for one learns about sea captains, inventors, merchant princes and adventurers.

Dr. Albion succeeds in letting in new light on certain phases of American history. He makes clear, for example, the fact that the building of the Erie canal was not the basic cause for New York's emergence as the leading port, and he also shows why the carefully managed Cunard line was able to force the more spectacular, but less efficiently managed Collins line out of business.

The illustrations in this volume are excellent, the appendixes are valuable, and the bibliography is impressive. The book will be useful for reference in secondary schools because it is interesting, because it furnishes important supplementary material and be-

cause it rectifies the inevitable tendency toward oversimplification of which textbooks are necessarily guilty. One cannot help but look forward to the author's further studies of this interesting subject.

WALTER H. MOHR

George School, Pennsylvania

The Founding of American Civilization: The Middle Colonies. By Thomas J. Wertenbaker. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938. Pp. 367. \$3.00.

Professor Wertenbaker has projected a three volume work describing the founding of American civilization: in the Middle Colonies, in New England and in the South. The first of these has appeared and reveals the author's general philosophy and plan. He describes the process of the creation of American civilization as an interplay of forces, some of which are the "European inheritance, local conditions, continued intercourse with Europe and the melting-pot." His plan is to "select certain topics" which are "well-suited to illustrate the principles of transit and development" and develop them at the expense of omitting many others.

The working of the melting-pot, the combination and fusion of European ways under the pressure of American experience, is the process most significant in the mind of the author. He illustrates this process in a variety of ways. He is particularly interested in the examples which can be obtained by a study of colonial architecture. He has examined the European patterns and has analyzed the treatment which they have received when transplanted to America. A second fruitful source for comparison is the modification of religious practice experienced in the migration. He likewise studies political institutions and folk art in the same fashion, though less intensively. Economic concerns receive a minimum of attention.

The resulting picture of the transit and modification of institutions is very vivid and gives the reader a greater sense of the process of the creation of civilization than do most treatments of the colonial period. However, it is a method which requires a good deal of work on the part of the reader in tracing a pattern for himself. Reading it is a stimulating experience.

Professor Wertenbaker's first volume is significant in another sense. It is an example of the growing interest in applying the concept of regional history which has been used so extensively in regard to the

western frontier, New England and the South to a region of great importance which has been very much neglected. The middle colonies and states have known much less regional self-consciousness and thus have gained correspondingly less recognition as an entity than have other regions. This volume therefore should serve as a stimulus to a new venture in historiography: the consideration of the history and significance of the middle states.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

History of American City Government: The Colonial Period. By Ernest S. Griffith. New York: Oxford University Press, 1938. Pp. 464. \$3.75.

Since 1888, when James Bryce branded the government of our cities the most conspicuous failure of democracy in the United States, much windy eloquence and some serious thought have been expended upon the solution of American municipal problems. But strangely enough, in view of their fact-finding methods, political scientists have neglected—almost avoided—the study of the historical origins and development of our municipalities. To Ernest Griffith has been left the task of telling us how our cities came to be as they are. Perhaps this is well, for with an Oxford training in the tradition of Beatrice and Sidney Webb, the author comes to his work admirably equipped. Here is the first of four volumes on the government of American cities.

A vast accumulation of materials, diligently gathered under conditions far from favorable, is competently organized and presented. In view of the nature of the subject Mr. Griffith wisely decided to abandon a chronological in favor of a functional treatment. After discussing English precedents for city governments the author proceeds to trace the attempts of the colonists to reproduce these institutions in some forty localities lying chiefly between New York and the Carolinas. Succeeding chapters analyze and discuss with abundant detail the privileges and jurisdictions of the colonial corporations, their control of economic life, their finance, and their relations with provincial authorities. It must not be assumed, however, that this volume is merely a technical treatment of colonial corporations; it is far more than that. Mr. Griffith has sought with great success to relate city government to the growing urban societies of the colonies; in several cases he shows how a community became an important urban center long before the government was brought into line with the new conditions. Public opinion and public participation in government also receive extended consideration. Indeed, this examination of city government in relation to the social and economic development of colonial communities is the outstanding feature of the work.

With all its excellencies this work will appeal chiefly to the student or specialist, because of the author's unfortunate devotion to the jargon of the political scientist and social psychologist. The casual reader is continually disturbed by the intrusion of technical terms. Mathematicians and physicists *must* make use of symbols; such is hardly the case of the student of politics. Is it too much to ask a leading authority on our municipal institutions to write for the understanding of interested laymen and politicians? It is indeed a matter of regret that this worthy American counterpart of the Webb's magnificent study of English local government, because of its stylistic defects, will hardly command the audience it deserves.

CARL BRIDENBAUGH

Brown University
Providence, Rhode Island

Bibliographies in American History: Guide to Materials for Research. By Henry Putney Beers. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1938. Pp. 339. \$3.50.

The author of this valuable book attempts to compile "a comprehensive collection of bibliographical materials for research in American history." While relying largely on the resources of the Library of Congress and the Union Catalogue with its 8,500,000 author entries from over 700 American libraries, Dr. Beers has also drawn his dragnet through the shelves and stocks of a number of other notable libraries. Fugitive typewritten compilations have not escaped his eagle eye. The result has been a compilation that fairly staggers the imagination—fourteen chapters containing 7692 items that run the whole gamut of social, economic, and political history. The chapters are divided as follows: "General Aids"; "Colonial, Revolution, and Confederation"; "The United States"; "Diplomatic"; "Economic"; "Education"; "Political Science, Constitutional, and Legal"; "Army and Navy"; "Races"; "Religious"; "Social, Cultural, and Scientific"; "Biography and Genealogy"; "Territories, Possessions, and Dependencies"; and "States." Five pages of bibliographical references are devoted to races while seventy-five pages are required to list the materials on the states.

The general organization of the book is excellent. Each chapter is conveniently divided, beginning usually with a general bibliography and then subdividing into special topics. The chapter on Economic History, for example, contains thirty-eight pages and 1164 items divided into the following heads: General, Agricultural, Business, Commerce, Finance and Banking, Industry, Insurance, Labor, Mining, Public Utilities, Tariff, Taxation, Transportation and Communication. Each of these special heads, where necessary, is broken down into smaller subdivisions. Thus,

transportation and communication includes bibliographies on the general subject of transportation and communication and in addition references on Air, Motor, Railroad, Water, and Communication.

Rich in bibliographical materials, conveniently organized for handy reference, fortified by an adequate subject-author index, the book is an indispensable tool that must find its way into every library in the country. It must also take a prominent place on the shelf of the serious student or researcher in American history.

WILLIAM J. PETERSEN

The State Historical Society of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa

Maximilien Robespierre: Nationalist Dictator. By James Michael Eagan. New York: Columbia University Press, 1938. Pp. 242. \$2.75.

Contemporary events lend added interest to a study of "the earliest of nationalist dictators," Maximilien Robespierre. The work traces the development of Robespierre's political philosophy from the early days when he was influenced particularly by the writings of Rousseau through the stage of constitutional and humanitarian nationalism up to the time when he emerged as the personification of Jacobin nationalism. In his preface, Dr. Eagan states that he is not attempting to prove Robespierre the prototype of present-day dictators and warns that he is not offering a comparison with modern dictatorships. Yet in his first chapter he points out that Robespierre became the prototype in aims, methods and personality of contemporary dictators, and the work abounds in direct references to Mussolini, Hitler, and Stalin.

Robespierre exercised his control through party organization; the dictatorship was one of the party, rather than of the individual. The Jacobin clubs like the fascist, nazi, and communist parties had their blood purges. Robespierre, like modern dictators, believed that he represented the will of the people, that the entire nation was behind him. The emergency which faced France and the enemies at home necessitated the establishment of a strong centralized government in which all powers would be vested, although this would, for the time, mean a loss of personal liberty. The individual should think and act as the nation willed; those who refused found their way to prison or the guillotine. Robespierre, like present-day dictators, was opposed to parliamentary government and like them he rigidly censored the press, stage, and right of assembly with the result that criticism of the government practically ceased.

He made excellent use of propaganda both in home affairs and foreign relations and he knew well how to use the techniques of revolution. He strove to fashion the general will through fear and emotional appeals to patriotism. Robespierre was one of the first

to make nationalism a religion and one of the first to demand that the people be organized as a "nation in arms." He adopted some principles of the autocratic state, stressed the need of arousing patriotism and military spirit through education, and encouraged an increase in the birth-rate through a system of bounties. Unlike modern dictators, he was not greatly concerned with the economic advancement of the state, but in common with them he made his appeal largely for nationalistic ends—a united country that would carry out its great civilizing mission.

Historical parallels or comparisons are, no doubt, always dangerous. At times it would seem that Dr. Eagan is straining at points and perhaps the work would have been stronger if merely the historical content had been offered without direct references to contemporary dictatorships. However, the work in its present form is so much more stimulating and makes a far more penetrating study. Anyone interested in the contemporary growth of the conception of the totalitarian state will find this work valuable in giving an insight into the methods and techniques not only of the first nationalist dictator but of the present-day dictators as well.

SYLVESTER JOHN HEMLEBEN

Fordham University
New York

American Saga: The History and Literature of the American Dream of a Better Life. By Marjorie Barston Greenbie. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. x, 682. \$4.00.

Seldom does one find such a readable book of American history; a book so rich in folklore and thrilling dramatization of the American people. It reveals America in the making by using personal letters, contemporary travelers' reports, and popular literature that tell of the hopes, fears, and aspirations of a representative group of Americans. The author has omitted the use of official documents and other sources that usually appear in histories. The book covers a wide range of material and shows a great deal of research. It is interestingly arranged and constantly avoids monotony.

Mrs. Greenbie says, "The people who have come here have been seeking a better life." This is the theme that permeates the book. From the beginning of Jamestown to the present, she weaves in one group of people after another who have held to this ideal. She has made the lives of these people beautiful and dramatic. She has tended to over-emphasize the heroic, the idealistic, and the tragic; yet she has attempted to tell "what just ordinary people were trying to get out of life."

The book is almost finished before we "Bind up the Nation's Wounds" in the period of Reconstruction. The author touches too briefly on the period

after the closing of the frontier. She leaves little thought to the pressing problems of modern times, nor does she hint of the future. She has given little economy interpretation. Her book may not be complete, but she has successfully developed a unique idea in history and has succeeded admirably in presenting the people who have been responsible for developing the American dream.

GEO. F. GRAY

Woodrow Wilson Junior High School
Port Arthur, Texas

History of Ancient Civilization. By Albert A. Trever, New York: Harcourt Brace and Co. I *The Ancient Near East and Greece*, 1936, Pub. 1939; II *The Roman World*, 1939. Pp. xx, 585 and xvii, 817. Illustrated. \$4.50 and \$5.50.

The publication of works on ancient history in the past few decades has gone on apace, due both to the accessions to our knowledge through archaeology, especially since the World War, and to increased activity in research by historians, whose contributions in monographs and scattered articles have been incorporated in various comprehensive and coöperative works, the best example of which is the *Cambridge Ancient History* now lacking only its twelfth and concluding volume. Besides, there are many individual works on a lesser scale which meet the interest in brief surveys as well as showing the competitive zeal of publishing houses.

To the latter class, and far above its average, belongs the work under review, its two volumes forming a splendid presentation of the factual background and its synthetic interpretation in the light of the most recent knowledge. For here are adequately treated all phases of ancient culture from the Stone Ages down through the Oriental states, Greece and Rome—geographical, political, social, economic, literary, artistic, scientific, and religious. All are presented with due deference to the accepted view that history is not a mechanical series of events in causal sequence, but rather the interaction of such events in the story of any people. While keeping the essential unity and continuity of ancient culture from cave man to Constantine the author has arranged the contributions of each people in its own setting.

Volume I keeps a good ratio of importance between the Orient and Greece—138 to 407 pages; while Volume II, dealing with the story of Italy down to the culmination of imperial Rome under Constantine, whose reign marks the close of the Classical and the beginning of the Christian-medieval period, devotes 302 pages to the Republic and 401 to the Empire. This is a more logical division of space than that found in most surveys, e.g., in Frank's *History of Rome* (1923) where the ratio between Republic and Empire is 408 to 180. A most useful

chronological table (787-792) gives all the important dates of Mediterranean history—Oriental, Greek, and Roman—down to the appearance of the *corpus juris civilis* in A.D. 529-534. The two volumes with their more than 1400 pages of text, 40 full-page illustrations, 21 selected maps, 8 charts, and indexes have also useful chapter bibliographies.

A novel feature is the attention given to religions, not only to those of the Orient, Greece and Rome, but to Christianity to which latter 29 pages are devoted. This is a welcome departure from the usual reprehensible habit of writers of college texts, who omit all reference to the beginning and progress of our religion in the Roman Empire. The most readable chapters, perhaps, are the Epilogos on the Hellenic and Roman heritage to western civilization, wherein is appraised the later influence of the Greek and Latin languages and literatures, their art, philosophy, science, education, political, economic, and social systems in theory and practice, and religion. The résumé of the development of Roman law (725-731) is also noteworthy.

The absence of all except a few explanatory footnotes fits a history designed for the college student and the general reader. The inconsistency in preferring Greek forms in spelling proper names except the commonest is easily condoned, but the constant placing of A.D. after a date is incorrect and annoying. But there is very little in the two volumes to find fault with and much to praise. It is an excellent history.

WALTER WOODBURN HYDE

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Room to Swing a Cat. By Lieutenant F. J. Bell, U. S. N. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1938. Pp. 274. Illustrated. \$3.00.

Heave to, mates, and we'll spin a yarn that will make the devotees of Conrad wish their craft were armed. So truly does the officer-author picture life at sea for Uncle Sam in the early part of the last century that the reader can scarcely tell where the research leaves off and tradition starts in.

This book, with the tang of the sea and salt pork, is at once solace for the big navy advocate, glorious pride tempered with time for the patriot, and the diary of rigorous life before the mast for youth.

Since a navy generally operates away from home, the exaggerated truth in the meager letters of a midshipman do not make a reliable chronicle. No seaman, a. b. (able-bodied is his best degree), knows much of causes—logs will not be published for years afterward; and officers, especially heroes, are silent—so this book, in spite of a long bibliography, is welcomed to tell us more.

Lieutenant Bell is honest, in that he does not leave

one with the impression that the American navy never lost a ship, or that the average officer spent his shore leave drinking, flirting, or dueling. In 1800 a captain was perforce an envoy extraordinary. The title does not tell all, for punishments are but part of the daily routine, albeit a necessary part in the days when men were men and sailors. The yarns leave the reader with a sigh of gratitude that the days of Jones and Decatur are passed.

ROALD OLIVER

Newtown, Pennsylvania

Red Sky Over Rome. By Anne D. Kyle. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938. Pp. 260. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Newspaper headlines today are so engrossed with the doings and pronouncements of the heads of the totalitarian states that we are prone to lose sight of the fact that there was a day when both Germany and Italy faced the problem of unification, just as the American colonies had faced it during and after the Revolution. Miss Kyle, who is also the author of *Crusader's Gold*, *Prince of the Pale Mountains*, and *The Apprentice of Florence*, offers an interesting novel with the background of Italy's struggles for unification under Mazzini and Garibaldi. While the book should appeal to more mature persons as well, it is designed for junior and senior high school students. At any rate, we recommend this tale as one that will help greatly to give understanding and sympathy—things so greatly needed in this day of super-propaganda and emotional thinking.

Little Cherry Carstairs is the heroine, and an active one. Grazia, her Italian friend, and Grazia's brother Droni provide problems for Cherry to solve. Grazia's father has been executed for his services to the cause of freedom, but may have had an opportunity to hide an opera he had composed. If this opera could be found, Grazia would no longer be dependent upon her kind Aunt Faustina and her stern Aunt Tecla, who dominates the little household and forbids Droni to enter it. He joins the ragged army of Garibaldi, has many adventures, and returns to Rome wounded. Aunt Tecla has, by this time, suffered a rather complete change of heart—she has even carried stones for the street barricades! The united families now prosecute the search for the missing opera vigorously and with surprising results. Excellent estimates of Garibaldi and of Mazzini make this work more than just fiction. Any student of that phase of world history should be interested in *Red Sky Over Rome*.

JOSEPH G. PLANK, JR.

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TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Introducing the Past. By Rachel Reed. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1939. Pp. xiv, 651. Illustrated. \$1.68.

"This book provides a formula, worked out and used for fifteen years in high school classrooms in presenting a first course in history to entering students." The book is organized into two parts with eighteen chapters in each. The chapters average sixteen pages in length and each one is intended to be a week's work. Each chapter is written in narrative form without paragraph headings or other aids within the body of the chapter. Valuable teaching aids to be found at the end of each chapter include an outline, a complete vocabulary list which includes more than one thousands words in the thirty-six chapters, a summary in the form of a completion test, reading references, and a map for each chapter. Finally, there is a fine forty-two page pronouncing index. A large number of dates, names, and places are packed into the pages. The first chapter consists of an orientation for the student concerning the meaning and importance of history and methods of study. In this chapter the author emphasizes the importance of using more than one textbook because of the difficulty of distinguishing between fact and opinion. The first paragraph in the book raises this question: "Have you ever considered that all of your actions and all of your words are copies? . . . All of your thoughts are copies of what other people have thought." Regardless of the intention of the author such a questionable use of the word "all" should serve as a fine first lesson in critical reading and critical thinking. In the succeeding chapters the main currents of world history are traced from the beginning of civilization to the Industrial Revolution. As is the case with most textbooks on ancient civilizations there is a conspicuous omission of the civilizations of China and Japan. The clear cut organization and brevity of the chapters, the valuable study helps, and most of all the fact that a high school teacher has successfully developed and tested it in class for fifteen years should interest many in this book.

HOMER T. KNIGHT

Garfield High School
Seattle, Washington

Growing in Citizenship. By Jeremiah S. Young and Edwin M. Barton. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. xx, 822, lii. Illustrated. \$1.76.

As the "Foreword" explains, *Growing in Citizenship* is a basic text in civics representing the latest development in the process through which Civil Government was succeeded by Community Civics, that by Social and Economic Civics, and that in turn by Introduction to Social Science.

The six units which make up the book bear these titles: "The American People and Their Basic Institutions"; "Community Activities and Social Ideals"; "Government of the People, by the People, and for the People"; "Working Together to Make a Living"; "The World of Work and One's Place in It"; and "Managing Our Lives and Finances."

The three final units, as the titles suggest, are devoted to economics. Adam Smith's "dismal science" is transformed, however. The literate person who could not read these pages with appreciation would indeed be exceptional.

Each chapter is introduced by an inspirational quotation and is closed by a "problem" quotation selected from contemporary material. Words for study, questions, and a list of reference readings appear also at the close of each chapter.

The chapter on "The Control of Law Breakers" is highly informative. However, the advisability of including a certain finger-printing scene (p. 142) and an illustration of target practice with human effigies involved (p. 143) may be questioned.

In another chapter, "The Family of Nations," Uncle Sam is shown shaking hands with a most disreputable figure misrepresenting Latin America (p. 428). "The Christ of the Andes" is conspicuous by its absence. No merest mention is made of Sarmiento, the scholar-president of Argentina and intimate friend of Horace Mann. Instead of fostering the attitude of condescension toward the "banana republics," the authors might well have included brief selections from the literary masterpieces of Heredia, Martí, and Bello.

The statement that the Chinese and Japanese of the United States number about 200,000 (p. 8) is approximately correct, if continental United States only is considered. The number would be very materially increased by the inclusion of the Chinese and Japanese of Hawaii.

Here is a compendium of information which will make an appeal to our young people. Clarity of style, binding, and numerous illustrations all contribute toward the general attractiveness of the volume. This work will become popular both as a text and as a collateral reading. Orientation classes will use it with profit.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon College of Education
Monmouth, Oregon

Windows on the World. By Kenneth M. Gould. New York: Stockpole Sons, 1938. Pp. 421. Illustrated. \$3.00.

The author is particularly qualified to present a subject in words readily understandable by high school students since for many years he has been managing editor of *Scholastic*, used by so many high

McKinley Improved Map Notebook

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schools as a regular part of required reference reading.

His association as one of the editors of *Social Hygiene* and managing editor of the *American Journal of Public Health* as well as consultant and contributing editor of other publications added to the fact that he made studies of the activities and reactions of his own three sons, would help prepare him for the task of writing the present volume.

The book is an admirable effort to furnish a much needed volume giving a review of historical changes and containing much sociology. Many of the analogies as well as the graphs are striking illustrations of the points that the author stresses.

On page 75 there appears to be an error in the figures representing the numbers of families in the various income brackets, unless those of the lower brackets have been included in the number receiving less income than a certain amount and, if so, the fact should be made more clear.

Also, in the last paragraph on page 99 appear some statements concerning our activities, given as facts, upon points on which many historians express contrary views. For example, "We seized a slice of Colombia against her will for the Panama Canal and stirred up a revolution there." It would have been fairer to all concerned to tell the youth of the coun-

try that such a charge has been made, not that it is a fact. Also, in the same paragraph entire credit for our "good neighbor" policies is given to President Franklin Roosevelt. The beginnings of such an attitude on the part of the United States started many years before the present administration began.

On pages 154-155 a clear discussion of the tariff situation is given and its relation to depressions, but no intimation is given of the necessary results of lowering tariffs: *i.e.*, the lowering of our standards of living and increasing of efficiency of the worker in order that we may compete with the foreign producer, or recasting our industrial and agricultural plans so as to produce mostly only those things that other nations cannot produce.

The author declares that the things that the citizen will meet in the next ten, twenty or thirty years will have to be solved one way or another with reasonable success and promptness.

The three chapters on "Catastrophe," "Safety First," and "One for All," seem to contain an exposition of what to do and what not to do. And finally in the spirit of optimism, the author writes his last chapter "Man the Unconquerable," and closes with a tribute to free intellectual inquiry without the untrammelled exercise of which civilization cannot be preserved. This "unquenchable spark," will not let

man rest in slavery, ignorance, or injustice.

Your reviewer believes that this book is a valuable addition to the works in this field.

HENRY G. SWAYNE

Senior High School
Savannah, Georgia

Directed Studies in World History. By Edwin W. Pahlow. New York: Ginn and Company, 1939. Pp. 125. Illustrated. \$.48.

This study guide is based on the author's text *Man's Great Adventure* (Revised Edition). It is a real invitation to the tenth grade student of world history to work. It is replete with interesting and instructive map studies, exercises for individual and group assignment, and reading material. With it comes a series of new-type tests for each division of the study manual.

BOOK NOTES

Amusements and Sports in American Life. By Robert B. Weaver. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. 196. Illustrated. \$1.00.

In a delightful and easy style, the author has written this book of amusements and recreational activities of American life. Full of excerpts and with choice illustrations the book surveys activities from the time of colonial restriction to the present wide range of sport life. The first few chapters develop the history of sports and amusements in early America. The remainder of the chapters trace the introduction and the development of specific sports. This book, with its fine bibliography, should find its way into many school libraries.

America Begins Again: The Conquest of Waste in Our Natural Resources. By Katharine Glover. Foreword by Stuart Chase. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. xv, 382. Illustrated. \$2.75.

This book is a vehicle for the ardent conservationist to create a zeal for the "cause" in the hearts of its readers. It contains a review of the waste of a wealth of natural resources. A sentence in the foreword is: "We cut down the forests, burned the soil out of the cut-over land, plowed up the plains of the cowboy where nature said only grass should grow, pumped out the underground water supply, speeded up floods, killed off the birds and beasts, wasted the oil fields, poisoned the rivers with sewage, and destroyed the fish which used to live in them—until today, three centuries after Plymouth Rock, government experts calculate that half of the original fertility of America has vanished." This is followed by an outline of the conservation movement, its leaders and its projects. There are chapters on the new power developments with the planned regional economy, the TVA, and

the Columbia River Basin projects. Extensive use is made of material from government bureaus and departments. The illustrations, many of them full page, and the content presentation, are such that readers, young or adult, should imbibe a greater interest in the conservation movement.

The United States Since 1865. By Louis M. Hacker and Benjamin B. Kendrick. Third edition. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1939. Pp. xxiv, 821. Illustrated. \$3.75.

The new edition of this widely used textbook in college and university courses merits the notice of secondary school people. It is written from the viewpoint that the purpose of history is to explain the present and that the real problems of modern American life are the ones to be considered. The authors treat controversial questions fairly, but at the same time, they make judgments and give interpretations which provoke thought. This edition leaves the material on the period from the Civil War to the World War largely as in the earlier editions. Sections Nine, Ten, and Eleven, on the events since the end of the World War, have been completely rewritten and chapters on the events brought in by the New Deal have been added. The discussions on economic problems—Capital and Labor, Agriculture, Economic Imperialism, the Depression, and the New Deal—have been recast. These revised sections in particular, forming about one-third of the text, furnish helpful reference reading for the secondary school teacher.

Beyond the Shining Mountains. By Dorothy Fay Gould. Portland, Oregon: Binford and Mort, Publishers, 1938. Pp. 206. Illustrated. \$2.25.

The author, a daughter of pioneer parents, gives thirty-six stories covering almost four hundred years of adventure in the Old Oregon country. There are stories of explorers by sea and by land, the Indians, the fur traders, the missionaries, and of the pioneers after the Boom Days and the Gold Rush. The material is gathered from original documents and from persons who remember the days of settlement. There is the commendable combination of historical accuracy and enough of human interest and thrills to hold the attention of a young reader. Illustrations as nearly contemporary as can be obtained and a sprinkling of colorful idiom help to give the atmosphere of the times. The literary style and the content of material are suitable for secondary school use.

Hunter of the Caverns. By Harold O. Whitnall. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1939. Pp. v, 119. Illustrated. \$1.50.

This story, by a university professor and contributor to magazines on the subject of popular science, is written for young boys and girls. It depicts the life

of a cave dwelling people, the Cromagnons, who lived in France thirty thousand years ago. Kut, a Cromagnon boy, lived when bison, wild pigs, reindeer, and mastadons roamed over a land chilled by a glacier in northern Europe. When he became a man, he was initiated as a hunter. He went on animal hunts, searched for honey, and made stone and bone weapons. Being a fine artist, he was made a member of a priest-like group, the artist hunters. The author follows the graphic records and gives an authentic picture of the life of the people. It is the opinion of the reviewer that students of junior high school age will read the story with a sustained interest and at the same time learn of prehistoric man.

Coöperation: Principles and Practices. Eleventh Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, 1938. Pp. ix, 244. \$2.00.

A part of the Yearbook is given to a discussion of the principles of coöperation as a social ideal. It begins with the thesis that the present world crisis is due largely to the lack of democratic coöperation and that the great opportunity of education is to provide a social environment in the schools which would educate the oncoming generation to coöperate intelligently. It is pointed out that a trend of present-day education is the tendency to consider the school as an organization for coöperative group living. But it is a fact that few schools have achieved this democratic form of organization. Administrators and supervisors give "lip service" to the ideal but have developed undemocratic practices in group purposing and group planning. The second part of the Yearbook has concrete suggestions and methods of putting the ideal into practice. There are reports of a number of experiments in democratic coöperation in school administration and in classroom teaching situations.

The Song of Roland. Translated by Merriam Sherwood. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1938. Pp. xxiii, 168. \$2.00.

The translation by Dr. Merriam Sherwood from the Old French of the Oxford Manuscript, will be a valuable addition to the history and literature sections of high school libraries already having one of the complete versions of this metrical tale. Dr. Sherwood's edition deals only with Roland's adventures and subsequent death at Roncevaux in the Pyrenees during the return of Charlemagne from his campaign against the Saracens of Spain.

She captures the simplicity of the medieval storyteller, and loses nothing of his verile and magnificently savage descriptions of the "battles unto death" which occupy the greater part of the tale; and, by an occasionally stilted rendering of idiomatic phrases

which suggests your own early Caesar translations, manages to inject a genuine quaintness and freshness into what is an old story.

The black and white illustrations with their beautifully alive horses and funny, stiff knights are charming.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Background Readings for American History, a Bibliography for Students, Librarians, and Teachers of History. Second edition, compiled, edited, and revised by Jean Carolyn Ross. New York City: H. W. Wilson Company, 1939. \$.35. Ten or more copies half price.

This edition has been prepared by the head of the Stevenson Room of the Cleveland Public Library, and includes fiction and non-fiction titles of works interpreting American history from earliest times to the present. Designed for junior and senior high school students.

America and the Refugees. By Louis Adamic. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Room 6333, 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 10 cents.

The refugee problem and its affects on the United States.

The Old Bay Line of the Chesapeake. By Alexander Crosby Brown. Newport News, Virginia: The Mariners Museum. 40 cents.

One hundred years of steamboat operation.

National Economy and the Banking System of the United States. By Robert L. Owen. Washington: United States Government Printing Office.

On the principles of monetary science in relation to the banking system.

Safety and Safety Education. Washington: National Educational Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W. 25 cents.

An annotated bibliography.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Amateurs in Arms. By F. J. Joseph. New York: Carrick and Evans, 1939. Pp. 280. \$2.50.

A novel with fictitious characters purported to reveal the truth about the illegal arms traffic in the Spanish War.

America Reborn: A Plan for Decentralization of Industry. By Ralph L. Woods. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. viii, 376. \$3.00.

A documented study which indicts the centraliza-

tion of industry and people of the United States, showing how decentralization can be accomplished.

American Social Problems. By S. Howard Patterson, A. W. Selwyn Little, and Henry Reed Burch. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. viii, 584. Illustrated. \$1.96.

A basic textbook in social studies for senior high school students.

America's Road to Now. By Charles H. Coleman and Edgar B. Wesley. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1939. Pp. xiv, 623. Illustrated. \$1.76.

The story of the settlement and growth of our country.

Beautiful Hawaii. By J. Walker McSpadden. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1939. Pp. viii, 220. Illustrated. \$2.50.

A description of the peoples, the national beauties, and industries of Hawaii.

City Planning: Why and How. By Harold MacLean Lewis. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. ix, 257. Illustrated. \$2.50.

A non-technical presentation of the need and advantages of city planning.

Education as Cause and as Symptom. By Edward L. Thorndike. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xiii, 92. \$1.25.

A study of the effects of education on the welfare of the individual and society.

Europe the Great Trader. By Alison E. Aitchison. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1939. Pp. vi, 424. Illustrated. \$1.04.

A text or geographical reader giving geographic data about the more important countries of Europe for the upper grades or junior high school.

Motion Pictures as an Aid in Teaching American History. By Harry Arthur Wise. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1939. Pp. ix, 187. \$3.00.

A study to determine the effectiveness of motion pictures as aids to the teaching of American History in the senior high school.

My Memories of the Comstock. By Harry M. Gorham. Los Angeles: Suttonhouse Publishers, 1939. Pp. 222. Illustrated. \$2.50.

An account of the everyday life of the rich and the poor of this region from 1877 to 1903.

The Nations Today. By Leonard O. Packard, Charles P. Sinnott, and Bruce Overton. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. viii, 727. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A physical, industrial, and commercial geography.

The Organization and Teaching of Social and Economic Studies in Correctional Instruction. By Glenn M. Kendall. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. xii, 159. \$1.85.

A study made by the New York State Commission on Education in Correctional Institutions.

Our Changing Social Order. Revised Edition. By Ruth W. Gavian, A. A. Gray, and Ernest R. Groves. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1939. Pp. x, 684. Illustrated. \$1.80.

A revised edition of a senior high school textbook for the study of contemporary problems from the sociological point of view.

Our Life Today. By Francis L. Bacon and Edward A. Krug. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1939. Pp. xxii, 657. Illustrated. \$1.76.

A textbook treating the introduction to current problems.

The Rise of New York Port, 1815-1860. By Robert G. Albion, with the collaboration of Jennie Barnes Pope. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1939. Pp. xiv, 485. Illustrated. \$3.75.

A scholarly and analytical history of the most significant period of the development of the New York Port.

Saber-Tooth Curriculum. By Raymond Wayne. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. xiii, 139. \$1.00.

A facetious and satirical take-off on our educational practices and economic order.

Social Work Year Book, 1939. Edited by Russell H. Kurtz. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1939. Pp. 780. \$3.50.

A record of organized activities in social work prepared by authorities on the topics discussed, a state by state description of public assistance programs, and a directory of national and state agencies.

Tudor Puritanism: A Chapter in the History of Idealism. By M. M. Knappen. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xii, 553. \$4.00.

A documented history of the English Puritan movement in the Tudor period.

Units in World History: Development of Modern Europe. Revised edition. By John T. Greenan and J. Madison Gathany. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. xxi, 858. Illustrated. \$2.32.

Revision of a world history textbook.